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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 23, 1910.

The Week.

Mr. Roosevelt could not have made a better beginning in the renewal of his American life than by the wireless message he sent as he neared shore. He will place an interval of more than two months between his landing and his first public speech; and he "will have nothing whatever to say in the immediate future about politics, and will hold no interview whatever on the subject with any one." During his absence in far-away lands, home affairs have gone through many phases. Some of the developments, political and personal, have been of a sort to engender bitter controversy, some to provoke differences of opinion on complicated questions of fact or of policy. The tariff, and "Cannonism," and conservation, and Ballinger, and railway control have successively had the centre of the stage; and Mr. Taft's personal part in these affairs has been a special thread running through the whole story. Of all this, Mr. Roosevelt has of course acquired, by this time, very considerable knowledge; but nothing can take the place of actual contact with the situation on the spot, and he is wise in waiting awhile before he puts his influence into the scale on the one side or the other of any of these disputes. Apart from this declaration, too, Mr. Roosevelt's message was all that could be desired in point of simplicity and good taste.

The new rule adopted in the House of Representatives, with but one dissenting vote, involves momentous possibilities. It may alter the entire business of law-making by committee, a system which has been bitterly criticised as anti-democratic and inimical to honest legislation, and defended as an absolutely necessary development of parliamentary government, and which, whether we approve it or not, is a very solid fact that calls for recognition. The new rule provides that upon petition by a member of the House that body may, by a majority vote, discharge a committee from the consideration of any bill it has in hand, and that the measure shall then be placed upon a special calendar for action in the House itself. The great argument in favor of the new rule is that it will prevent the killing of bills in committee, a procedure with which the bulk of legislative graft is intimately bound up. And there may be sufficient additional reasons to overcome the obvious argument that the process of committee-taming, if carried to excess, would swamp the House with business.

In passing the bill authorizing the President to withdraw from entry any public lands of the United States which he thinks should not be open to sale or settlement until Congress has decided how they are to be disposed of, Congress has done a good day's work. This Executive power, under previous legislation, has been in dispute. Roosevelt and Garfield believed that it existed; Taft and the Attorney-General did not. In his letter to ex-Secretary Garfield of last November, President Taft consented for the time to allow many of the withdrawals to stand, though he feared that "a considerable stretch of the Secretary's power" was involved. It was of the highest importance that such doubts should be set at rest. This could be only by an act of Congress expressly granting the needed authority. In obtaining it, the President has not only procured one more item in his legislative programme, but—and this is of much greater consequence—has taken a long step forward in fortifying and making impregnable the whole policy of conservation.

The full text of Senator Dolliver's tariff speech appears in the *Congressional Record* of June 15, and we advise all to read it who like a demonstration of the fallacies which lurk in lump sums and general percentages. It was in itself a specious argument for Mr. Payne and Republicans who cited his figures to base the claim of large tariff reductions upon "consumption values"; but even accepting that basis, Senator Dolliver has shown how misleading is the inference drawn when lower taxes on bituminous coal which we import in but small quantities, and on agricultural products which we do not import at all, are reckoned as actual remissions of money paid by the consumer. In his elaborate analysis of the cotton schedule, of which in the special session last year the Iowa Senator showed that he had made himself a master, he is particularly damaging to Senator Aldrich and the tricksters who worked through him.

Judge Grosscup sees no stopping place in the movement to deal with the monopoly problem short of accepting the great industrial concerns as monopolies *de jure*, as they are *de facto*, and regulating their profits and their prices. "Some think," he said in his address at Philadelphia the other day, "the great corporations of the country can be made by law to compete. To compete with whom—when that particular corporation already has a monopoly of the field?" That may be the conclusion to which we shall all be driven at some time in the future, but there will be a good stout fight for the principle of competition before it is abandoned. Strong as is the grip of the monopolistic corporations, most of them have to keep within pretty definite bounds to ward off competition; and who can say what future developments in the way of mechanical changes, and in the way of changes in patent and other laws, may effect?

At a time when chances for Democratic success would appear to be better than usual in most parts of the Union, the situation in Tennessee presents many disquieting aspects. Primarily the difficulties are not political at all. Hostility to the renomination of Gov. Patterson has resulted, as it was manifest that it would, in a split in the Democratic party and the likelihood that two State tickets both bearing the Democratic stamp will be in the field this autumn. Opposition to Patterson is based on his action in the pardoning of the Coopers, father and son—the convicted slayers of Senator Carmack—and in his pro-saloon attitude. The Carmack faction is active and bitter, and with an alliance with the "State-widers" the result of the election would certainly be in doubt. But Patterson is apparently counting on Republican support to offset this defection. He has always been considerate of the negroes, and no Democratic Governor since the war has had

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so strong a following among them. On this fact and the feeling among negroes that they have not been rightly treated by President Taft, he is doubtless counting to carry him again into office.

The city of Tacoma, dreaming dreams of empire on the shores of Puget Sound, has built itself a high-school stadium which is said to be capable of holding more people than Harvard's great amphitheatre. This magnificent monument to Tacoma's pride and her ambitions was dedicated last week with appropriate ceremonies which drew "24,000 cheering Tacomans" within the spacious concrete arena. Properly enough, the school children, whose nickels and dimes went to the making of the stadium, played the principal part in the festival. Four thousand of them were grouped in a great American flag. Seven thousand of them went through picturesque drill and dances. The climax came when the children, flags in hand, kept time to the playing of the "Star-Spangled Banner." Thereupon, says the Tacoma *Daily News*, "with one accord the entire audience rose to its feet, cheered the mass of waving flags, and joined in singing the national air. Men doffed their hats and all were thrilled with a new feeling of patriotism. Tacoma will probably never in her history witness such a patriotic sight as that of yesterday afternoon when the living flag was presented." Having thus dedicated her unsurpassed stadium, Tacoma forthwith telegraphed an offer of $101,000 for the privilege of "pulling off" the Jeffries-Johnson fight on that splendid field.

Two and twenty Mayors are taking part in the two-days' discussion of municipal health problems at the conference which is meeting at Schenectady. There will be specialists there to instruct them in the various phases of a question that is as important as any that confronts the chief executive of a city. Housing and health, rest and recreation, the city and life-waste, the city and tuberculosis, health-department organization, city sanitation, and city food-supply are among the problems that are to be taken up for consideration. Why, it may be asked, should Mayors spend time and the public money in listening to information that is accessible enough in printed form? The answer is that personal contact among a group of men doing the same work is a way of stirring the enthusiasm that begins to flag under the strain of daily routine. The Mayor has hundreds of printed volumes to read if he so desires; but has he either the time or the inclination? From a two-days' threshing out of problems, theories, and remedies, the Mayor may bring back a vivid realization of duty and need that no amount of printed pages can supply. The conference of Mayors may supply just the right spectacular spice which is frequently so necessary to the whole-hearted attack of a problem.

Any one who in a telephone booth has been disturbed by loud talking outside, or some other noise to interrupt the electric conversation, will be interested in an article in a German periodical, *Der Gesundheitsingenieur*. The writer tells how he dealt with this difficulty. He had been making some acoustic experiments which convinced him that if a wooden telephone booth were lined with tin, all noises would be excluded. He nailed sheets of tin on the wooden walls with the result that an expert, who had laughed at his idea, was so impressed that he forthwith proceeded to construct a number of such booths. Nor are telephone users the only ones who may profit by this experiment. The writer referred to appeals to architects to introduce tin, or aluminium, in the walls of houses generally, to deaden sounds. He is convinced that if this were done, the neighbor's daughter's piano and voice would cease to be a disturbing factor in life, except, of course, in summer, when all the windows are open. The tin-manufacturers may be trusted to see to it that this plan is properly pushed and advertised.

Missionary literature, in general, has been slow to admit any dark side to the American occupation of the Philippines. In a recent number of *Missions*, however, the official Baptist missionary organ, certain unpleasant phases of the situation are set forth with candor and vigor. A missionary writing from Jaro finds the chief difficulty to lie in the utter inability of the American to rid himself of race prejudice. "The American in the Orient has the air of being the sole representative of the human race, and the Oriental is classed as a sub-human species that may eventually develop, through long periods of progressive development, into the *genus homo*." It is a pathetically rare thing, he says, to find any American resident among the Filipinos who is not continually berating, in both public and private, the entire Filipino race. The natives had at one time given themselves over to a whole-hearted acceptance of American intervention, and set themselves enthusiastically to the task of acquiring American methods of government, industrial development, and education. But the supercilious air with which their aspirations were met convinced them that "there was only social and moral peonage and serfdom along this way."

The charges of American violation of neutrality made by President Madriz may be impertinent. It may be true, as Secretary Knox declares in his reply, "that the policy of the United States remains as set forth in the Secretary of State's letter of December 1, 1909," wherein this Government announced that it would recognize any Nicaraguan faction which succeeded in organizing a stable government and pacifying the country. It may be true that in prohibiting the bombardment of Bluefields by a Madriz war-vessel, we only followed the example of the British at Greytown. It may be that we are in the right on every point against President Madriz; but there is something that we may owe to the people of Nicaragua as opposed to its Presidents or would-be Presidents. The war there has resulted in a deadlock of exhaustion. The economic condition of Nicaragua is described as very bad, and as getting rapidly worse. Under such circumstances, it would not be amiss if the United States, returning good for evil, were to offer its services for the attainment of peace, or even express the wish that some other agent than ourselves might be entrusted with the task. The mere offer on our part would in itself do a great amount of good in depriving Estrada of all excuse for holding out to his deluded followers the chance of American intervention in his behalf.

Another Mexican revolution has been nipped in the bud. It was planned to come off next Sunday, when that blushing young Presidential candidate, Por-

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firio Diaz, is to appeal for the suffrages of his fellow-citizens, or know the reason why. Mexico's revolutionists must be either criminally foolish or criminally reckless in picking out just the week and the day when Porfirio Diaz is likely to be widest awake and to have most troops at his disposal. One would imagine that a revolutionary *coup* would be best set for the day after election, when the victor is a bit dazed with his triumph and the vanquished are sore with defeat. The other hypothesis is that the Mexican revolutionists were neither reckless nor foolish, that no outbreak had been set for election day, and that the entire dreadful plot was the discovery of Diaz and his zealous agents. It is, to say the least, unfortunate that the man who holds Mexico in the hollow of his hand should be so badly frightened by his enemies' plots just a few days before election day.

Amid all the rumors of conferences and an agreement, on the Constitutional issue, between the two parties in England, little has been heard of another movement which may have consequences almost as important. We refer to the non-partisan committee in the House of Commons which has been laboring to make a beginning of woman suffrage in England. Called a Conciliation Committee, and composed of 16 Liberals, 11 Conservatives, 5 Irish Nationalists, and 4 members of the Labor party, it has worked out a bill which, it is hoped, may prove non-contentious, and may pass at least in the Commons during the present sitting of Parliament. The proposed measure is considerably short of complete enfranchisement for woman, yet would, if adopted, put the names of many female voters on the register. In brief, two classes of women would be made voters: householders and the owners of a £10 occupation qualification—that is, occupiers of lands, offices, or shops of that renting value. Not many married women would be admitted to the franchise under this plan, since they could not qualify for the same property as their husbands; but, on the other hand, they would not be disqualified. To this moderate proposal all sections of the committee have agreed; and both the great suffrage societies—the National Union and the National Women's Social and Political Union—have officially accepted it as a payment on account.

The system of proportional representation has had its most extensive trying-out in the recent general elections in Belgium. It has operated acceptably well, but without removing all the anomalies of the ordinary system. The anti-Catholic parties in the Chamber have registered a popular vote of 1,125,000, against 1,063,000 for the Catholics; yet the latter hold a majority of six in the Chamber. At Malines, 24,818 votes gained a single seat, while 41,632 votes gained three seats. At Nivelle, it took only 15,419 votes to elect a Liberal but 24,818 votes to elect a Clerical. At Arlon, 20,521 Liberal votes gained a single seat, and 25,294 Catholic votes won two. The failure of the proportional-representation machine to function perfectly is due, in Belgium, partly to the existence of the plural vote which counterbalances the effect of the proportional distribution. But partly the cause is to be found in the mathematics of the particular system used in that country. There is no denying, however, that R. P., as the French-speaking people call it, is effective against gross misrepresentation. In Belgium, where the Catholics in 1900 had a Parliamentary majority of 29, the rectifying influence of proportional representation has cut down their swollen majority to 26, to 20, to 12, and to 6, successively.

The open advocacy by the Prime Minister of entire religious liberty in Spain, and the firmness with which he is proceeding from step to step in order to procure it, are only parts of the large and comprehensive policy which Señor Canalejas is pursuing. This he explained in person and with great directness to the Madrid correspondent of the *Frankfurter Zeitung*. His great aim, he said, was the restoration and quickening of the Liberal tradition. On the one side, this would lead to a vigorous opposition to overweening Clerical pretensions, while on the other it would work against the extremes of the Socialists and Republicans. As regards the latter point, Prime Minister Canalejas may point with satisfaction to some of the results of the recent general election. Although Republican successes were unexpectedly won here and there, in Catalonia, so long the seed-bed of Spanish Republicanism, the old Catalan solidarity was rudely shattered. Whereas in the previous Cortes there were eighteen Republican Deputies, working hand in hand with fourteen "regionalists," in the new there will be only ten Republicans and seven regionalists, the Liberals having made great gains and carried thirteen seats. One remark of Canalejas in the interview is striking. He said of the King: "Alfonso XIII is a thoroughly convinced Liberal and a monarch with modern ideas. I have laid before him my entire programme, without any concealment of the difficulties in the way of its realization, yet he has given me his full confidence and co-operation."

Hungary, like France and Belgium, has just had a Parliamentary election. The results are more significant than in either of the other two countries. The Independent or Kossuthite party, which for a half-dozen years has been sufficiently in the ascendant to make government by any other party impossible while not governing very well itself, has been decisively beaten. And its defeat has come not at the hands of any other great party, but of the Crown itself. The Liberal party, after holding power for many years, was overwhelmingly defeated in January, 1905, by a combination headed by Francis Kossuth and Count Albert Apponyi. Confusion followed, and it was not until April, 1906, that a compromise or "functionary" Cabinet was organized, with Wekerle at its head and Kossuth and Apponyi in important Ministerial positions. The question of universal suffrage and a separate state bank for Hungary brought dissension, and in 1909 the Coalition split wide open. The only remedy was the usual one in the Hapsburg domains—the appointment of an interim Ministry of officials to carry on the necessary business of government. Count Khuen-Héderváry was chosen Premier, and he made preparations for the recent general election in which the country gave him a rousing majority, thus indicating its weariness of party strife and turmoil. Inasmuch as the Independent or Coalition party was bent upon greatly loosening the ties with Austria, its defeat has been hailed by the Premier as a return to the principles of the dual arrangement of 1867, "which form the basis of the country's international position."

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RAILWAY REGULATION.

Most of the comments upon the railroad bill, as now signed by the President, play upon the surface of the matter. They refer to Mr. Taft's pleasure—very natural under the circumstances—at having persuaded Congress to do what it long appeared probable that it would not do. There is also much said about the due apportionment of credit—or blame—for the final form of the law, as between Republicans and Democrats, insurgents and regulars. The political effect of the new statute is likewise much discussed. What part will it play in the coming Congressional elections? Will it prove to be a winning card for the Administration? Such questions are inevitable; and the personal equation is brought in as a matter of course; but none of these things goes to the heart of the business.

It is apparent at once that the law represents an enormous advance upon what has gone before. When Mr. Roosevelt's modest proposals, a part of which were finally embodied in the Hepburn bill, raised such an outcry and led to such fierce debates and prolonged struggles, few could have supposed that we should so soon and so quietly be adopting much more radical recommendations. The event would certainly lead Machiavelli, if he were alive and writing of current events, to renew and reinforce his sagacious remark: "Let no one who begins an innovation in a state expect that he shall stop it at his pleasure, or regulate it according to his intention."

The precise "intention" of the framers of the original Interstate Commerce Act has been warmly disputed, but there can be no dispute that their handiwork has now been made over so as to be almost beyond their recognition. The control of the Interstate Commerce Commission over the business of railways has been made both more sweeping and more minute. We say nothing of the regulation of the issue of securities, for that has been put aside for the time being by reference to a special commission. But in what stands we have a great expansion of the supervising and regulating power of the Commission. It may, on its own initiative, and without waiting for a complaint, take up any case of rates or practices that seem unreasonable, and issue its order. Chief in importance is the provision making all increases in railway rates ineffective until approved by the Commission, and squarely putting upon the roads the burden of proof that the advances are reasonable and warranted. Other clauses hedge about what the railway managers have hitherto regarded as their liberties; and the whole act constitutes a more drastic scheme of government regulation than would have seemed conceivable—to say nothing of being practicable—ten years ago.

Even those who argue that this vast extension of the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission had become necessary, will not deny that it may be fraught with grave consequences. We will not say, with the president of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, that it leads inevitably to the government ownership of railways, but it cannot be denied that, if there is a genuine movement for such ownership, it will be greatly accelerated by what has now been done. Happily, Americans remain, with the English, highly illogical in their politics. Because one step seems to demand an immediate next step, it does not at all follow that we shall take the latter. We are still fond of partial experiment, and are very much rule-of-thumb in our public business. The chances are, therefore, that this new venture in railway regulation will have a long trial before anything further is attempted; that a *modus vivendi* will be worked out between the Interstate Commerce Commission and the railways; and that we are not going to see the property of the great transportation companies either confiscated or nationalized.

It is noteworthy that the railway presidents who talk at all about the new measure assume an optimistic tone. Their cheerfulness may be partly forced, but it is certain that any sound railway company honestly conducted has little to fear. It is to be assumed, to begin with, that the members of the Interstate Commerce Commission are upright and capable men. They have no desire to harry the railways. Abuses and illegalities it is their function to repress and punish, but the normal and lawful prosperity of the business they would wish to cherish and cultivate. Moreover, in all the new publicity and compulsion to prove that their rates are reasonable, no substantial right of the railways is imperilled. They may always take their appeal from unjust decisions to the courts; while all that they ought to ask is the privilege of demonstrating to an impartial tribunal that what they propose is proper and necessary. If, for example, it can be shown that the railways, in order to obtain adequate returns, must raise their freight rates, there is nothing in the new law to prevent its being done. Only, it must be done in an orderly and deliberate and public way. No one supposes that inexorable financial laws can be set aside by statute. All that President Taft and the other champions of the new law have contended for is a kind of working agreement between commercial necessities and the rights of the public. And now that the great experiment is to be entered upon, every one must hope that it will be carried through in a spirit of mutual forbearance and with a desire that justice be done to all concerned.

THE NEW STATES.

Arizona and New Mexico have at last been admitted into the Union as separate States, and their peoples must now set to work at Constitution-making. The addition of two more stars to the flag has peculiar significance in the present instance, because they are the last two stars that the present continental territory of the United States, omitting Alaska on the ground of "non-contiguity," can supply. The process of commonwealth-building between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans is now rounded out; and with it an historical epoch is completed. From unorganized territory to organized territory, from organized territory to Statehood, the process has pursued its play for one hundred and twenty-three years, since the poor, decrepit Congress of the Confederation gave the first solid pledge to the future in the Northwest Ordinance. New Mexico and Arizona enter the Union very much in the same fashion that Tennessee and Ohio came in. This unbroken process is one more striking testimonial to that stability which has gone hand in hand with democracy in this country.

Statehood for Arizona and New Mexico closes also a secondary epoch in the process of commonwealth-building, a period in which the process has moved forward more rapidly than it ever did in the history of the country. In the twenty-two years since the election of Benjamin Harrison to the Presidency,

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nine States in all, counting Arizona and New Mexico, have been added to the Union. The only two periods that can show anything like the same record were the years 1812-37, when seven States were admitted, and the years 1840-61, when eight States entered the Union. Of the fourteen States that have been added to the sisterhood in the half-century since the outbreak of the civil war, four were admitted before 1867; then came a pause of nine years, till Colorado, the centennial State, entered; then comes a longer pause of thirteen years, a gathering of strength and wind for the final effort, and the Dakotas, Montana, Wyoming, Idaho, Washington, Oklahoma, and now the two southwesternmost States, are brought within the circle. It is a political growth that has resulted from and kept pace with the marvellous economic development of the last twenty years. And in a way the passing of the territorial form of government from the continental United States suggests that passing of the limitless land areas and limitless resources to which we are just beginning to awaken. The nation has completely grown up and been brought to face the responsibilities that go with maturity. The child ranges free; the man seeks his resources in himself. We speak today of such things as dry-farming and intensive cultivation.

What have these new States to contribute to the Federal partnership? Arizona has 113,000 square miles of territory and New Mexico has nearly 123,000 square miles. Arizona had in 1900 a population of 123,000, but a Federal estimate for the year 1909 places the population at about 155,000. New Mexico has grown a little more slowly and has risen from 195,000 in 1900 to some 227,000 in 1909. It may also be in order to mention that a Federal estimate of five years ago places the value of property in New Mexico as $332,000,000, and in Arizona at $306,000,000, a per capita wealth which is almost the same as that shown in a prosperous old State like Iowa. The public school has kept pace with material prosperity. Arizona's population is one-fifteenth of Iowa's, and so, very nearly, is her school-attendance. New Mexico's record is still better. Her population is one-tenth of Iowa's and her school-attendance is one-eighth. Arizona's fervid objection to Statehood wedlock with New Mexico cannot be justified on the ground that it would be marrying down in the social scale. Of the two, New Mexico, as much the older community, is apparently the more advanced in culture. The prejudice between Arizona and New Mexico is partly racial and partly political.

Politically the admission of the two States will not affect the party strength greatly in either branch of Congress. Arizona sent a Democratic delegate to Congress from 1900 to 1906, and elected a Republican by 700 in 1908, a Presidential year. The Legislature, which had its biennial session last year, stood 27 Democrats to 9 Republicans. New Mexico has sent Republican delegates to Congress, though by majority of less than four hundred votes, but the last Legislature showed a Republican majority of 20 on joint-ballot. Two Democratic Senators from Arizona and two Republican Senators from New Mexico would seem to be the most immediate prospect. The case of Arizona would seem to be the surer one, because in that territory the delays and disappointments it has experienced at the hands of a Republican Congress have engendered sharp resentment. The sentiment has been repeatedly expressed that "the Republican Congress is doing everything in its power to make Arizona overwhelmingly Democratic."

AMERICAN PEACE DIPLOMACY.

Secretary Knox's address at the University of Pennsylvania on "The Spirit and Purpose of American Diplomacy" had a peculiar timeliness. He shows that the whole course of American diplomacy has made for the promotion of peaceful methods of settling international differences, and peaceful means of advancing international welfare; and his words come at a time when attention has been directed to one of the most notable specific developments of these efforts. The permanent arbitration tribunal at The Hague has begun the consideration of the age-long fisheries dispute between this country and Canada; and the fact that two of the leading Powers of the world have submitted this extremely complex problem to judicial determination is justly regarded as an event of the highest significance. The great international jurist who presides over the tribunal, in opening the proceedings, expressed the profound satisfaction which is felt, throughout the world by those who have worked for the promotion of pacific methods, in this signal proof of the progress accomplished in the few years since the first Hague Conference. Mr. Knox's survey shows how this recent development, extraordinary as it has been in scope, and in promise for the future, is a consistent sequel of a long history, in which our own country has a right to feel that it has borne the leading part.

It is interesting to note the source to which Secretary Knox ascribes the early addiction of the statesmen and diplomatists of the United States to peaceful settlement of international controversies. "Representing," he says "a small and weak belligerent nation, beset with difficulties of discipline, organization, equipment, men, and finance, and realizing in the fullest measure, as they did, how near they were to losing, because of these deficencies, their own struggle for what, in their opinion, was a just and righteous cause, it is not strange that these men should have later sought for some method of adjusting their international difficulties other than by the lawless uncertainties of war." John Jay's treaty of 1794, for the settlement of boundary and other disputes with Great Britain, ushered in "the modern era of arbitration," and to the mother country Mr. Knox assigns high praise for assenting to this arrangement when the advantage in an armed conflict seemed so likely to be hers. From that time to this, in a hundred ways, our dealings with a great variety of international affairs have shown a constant tendency in the same direction. Nor has the example of our country in this direction been limited to the promotion of arbitration; the success of its endeavors in promoting various useful ends in China, Japan, Korea, Turkey, and elsewhere, with no threat of force to back its representations, has been a potent factor in the furtherance of the idea that a nation may effect great international results without resort to warlike measures.

A chapter of American diplomacy that has a character apart from all the rest is that which relates to the republics of South and Central America. To the advance of those republics towards their present condition, the United States has contributed chiefly by its constant solicitude for the preservation of their independence and for the inviolability of

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their territory. What the condition is, Mr. Knox expressed in his statement that, with some exceptions, they "have achieved government as stable, as enlightened, and as responsible as our own." It is not very many years since such a statement by an American Secretary of State, if made at all, would have been regarded as a mere bit of conventional politeness. We were in the habit of using the generic term South American republic as synonymous with a country racked by revolution, falling prey, in rapid succession, to one adventurer after another, and incapable of making steady economic, political, or social progress. Now all that is changed; and there could hardly be a more impressive lesson as to the folly of impatient judgment and impulsive action in dealing with the difficulties or imperfections of backward nations.

One landmark in the history of our country's relations with the outside world is conspicuous by its absence in Mr. Knox's address. It has become so customary, in many quarters, to speak of the war with Spain as marking not only a turning-point in our country's history, but the beginning of its importance as an influence among the nations, that it is somewhat curious to find no indication of anything of the kind in this historical survey. One is almost tempted to think that the United States was not an altogether insignificant factor in the affairs of the world even before Dewey smashed the Spanish ships in Manila Bay. Perry's opening of Japan to the world's commerce, for instance, "was justly hailed, both in Europe and America, as a great triumph of peaceful diplomacy"; and—to choose an example that has to do with international wars—the action taken by our Government in 1895 in bringing about the restoration of peace between China and Japan is set down as though it were a respectable achievement. Of the signal part played by the United States, from almost its earliest days, in influencing international law and custom on the subject of the rights of neutrals in time of war, Mr. Knox does not happen to make mention; but the current of American diplomatic effort appears, from his story, as one that has flowed steadily and strongly, and that has made itself felt effectively, from the time of Jay's negotiation of the treaty of 1794 to the present day. Its latest phase is represented by the effort Mr. Knox himself is making, with every prospect of final success, to enlarge the present arrangements at The Hague into a true court, having a continuous life and permanent membership, and developing its own body of authoritative rules and precedents—a court to which, in all ordinary conjunctures, the nations of the world will submit their differences just as individuals now submit theirs in an ordinary court of law.

SWELLING PUBLIC EXPENSES.

Gov. Hughes has lopped off nearly $5,000,000 from the appropriations made by the New York Legislature, but even so the total left in force is some $5,000,000 greater than last year. These two facts, taken together, are a telling commentary on the enormous difficulty of keeping down public expenses. Not everything can be charged to the recklessness of the Legislature. It did, indeed, display a cool disregard of the probable revenue of the State, and apparently took no thought for making both ends meet; and it hid away in the supply bills a great many suspicious items through which the Governor thrusts his discriminating pen. There was evidence of a good deal of log-rolling in the make-up of this year's appropriations at Albany; a surprising number of armories were to be built here and there throughout the State, and several local grants in aid of politicians were proposed. Most of these Gov. Hughes has disallowed, and has done it on principle, so that supporters of his in the Legislature suffer as well as his opponents, though the latter are naturally more numerous since more of them had legislative favors promised them for entering into the combination against the Governor. But making allowance for all this, and taking it for granted that Gov. Hughes has cut off every dollar possible, we remain confronted with the unpleasant truth that the necessary expenses of the State have increased $5,000,000 in a single year—or more than 10 per cent.

Yet all of this increase, the Governor shows, falls within the provision of money for the educational, the humane, the reformatory work of the State. The added sum of $540,000 had to be appropriated in order to carry out the Constitutional amendment adopted by the people raising the salaries of the judges. An increase of $325,000 was made in the appropriation for public schools. Hospitals and prisons came in for a provision of needed funds larger by upwards of $2,000,000—though half of this is really arrears. The money required for keeping up with the work of abolishing grade crossings and enforcing the law relating to motor vehicles eats up an additional $850,000. None of these public expenses could be cut off without diminishing the charitable and progressive activities of the State. And the experience of New York is but the same as that of other States and of municipal governments. The public outlay shows everywhere a distinct and seemingly irresistible tendency to increase faster than the growth of population, faster perhaps than the accumulation of wealth.

This, of course, is no argument against making constant and valiant efforts to keep down public expenses. On the contrary, it is a powerful argument for doing it. With so many new demands upon the public purse, that are so hard to refuse, the need of withstanding every form of extravagance and waste becomes all the more imperative. So does the call for perfecting and enforcing better systems of financial control. Of one such we have a happy example in the power bestowed upon the Governor of New York to veto separate items in appropriation bills. The general practice is to compel an Executive to take or reject a measure in its entirety. Under that plan, the temptation to slip all kinds of indefensible projects into an appropriation bill is obvious. Once get them safely tucked within its four corners, and the veto cannot reach them without causing the whole act to fall—and that would often mean serious embarrassment to the public business. Hence the vast importance of being able to strike out dubious items. If President Taft, for instance, had the power of the Governor of New York to single out and refuse to sign bad clauses or vicious details in the money-bills sent to him by Congress, he would be much nearer in sight of effective control of the national expenditures than the Administration can now be said to be. Indeed, at Washington as at Albany, there is much concern over swollen appropriations. Despite the fact that the official estimates were $40,000,000 less this year than the appropriations last year, and notwithstanding all the talk in the Sen-

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ate about economy, and the actual formation of something like a budget committee, Congress has been voting money very much in the old fashion, so that the outlook now is, not for a large saving, but for an actual increase in expenses.

Lord Cromer once made a speech on financial administration in which he said that he had always held it a rule in Egypt, whenever the question arose of making a new governmental outlay, to insist upon being shown first where the money was to be found. He added that, of course, the problem was different in a country where elected representatives might force the hand of a Finance Minister. But he said, dryly, that while this altered the political problem, the arithmetical problem remained precisely the same. Money voted has still to be found. And the only place where it can be found is in taxes. Hence before citizens settle down comfortably in the conviction that the increase of public expenses is bound to go on, and that no man, no party, no system can prevent it, they ought to ask themselves whether they will be equally comfortable in the thought that there is to be a like and unavoidable increase in taxation.

GOING FISHING VS. ANGLING.

Only a very dull or untrained reader—of the kind that would confuse fox-hunting with shooting foxes—will stumble over this title. The angler and the man who goes fishing inhabit different worlds, profess mutually incompatible morals, and reciprocally must misunderstand each other. Your angler is essentially an uneasy man, a stickler for form. The mere taking of fish is a trifling incident in a long and complicated process. For months he has weighed the merits and demerits of rod-makers, all winter he has put by with the eye of the critic featly tied flies, has considered the mechanism of reels, by taking thought has cut an ounce from the weight of a rod, and finally, when he reaches lake or stream, he not merely wants fish, but wants them according to an elaborate code. They must be taken on the top of the water, with the lightest tackle. The angler, like a pseudo-classical dramatist, has his unities and scorns mixture of the *genres*. He abounds in distinctions. Under certain circumstances, but carefully restricted, an artificial minnow may be substituted for an artificial fly, but only contempt would be his portion who should add to fly a tiny revolving spoon, or tip the combination with a bit of the loathly earth-worm. In short, the angler seeks not fish, but an engrossingly ceremonious pursuit of them; not relaxation, but a fine and exacting avocation.

Imagine pretty nearly the opposite of this character and you have that of the man who goes fishing. He prefers the coarsest and most handy tackle. Any lure serves him, and a line hitched for security to a tholepin at one end, with a hook at the other, is often his entire outfit. His whole mental attitude differs from that of the angler. Whereas the neo-Waltonian plans an aggressive campaign, the man who goes fishing waits passively until destiny provides fish or night. There is a belief that anglers are contemplative men; Izaak Walton gave some comfort to such a fallacy on his title-page. The error is radical. No one can be more incapacitated for vagrom meditations than he who is conscientiously whipping a stretch of water. After the business of angling, in evening lassitude, an angler might possibly be contemplative; the strength of the mere fishing man's position is that he is never on duty, always free to slumber, to muse, to indulge hazy philosophies, for in so doing he fails in no duty and loses no tactical point. The fish that is simple enough to bite at the crude bait covering a massive hook is doomed to stay on until he is wanted, though a system of morals were evolved the while.

It is, in fact, the simple, instinctive love of vagabondage that takes men fishing. To be for a space dissolved in the flux of things, to escape the calculable, drop a line into mysterious realms above or below conscious thought—this is the privilege of the man who goes fishing. One bond unites him with the angler—neither primarily desires fish, but a special experience; and here the man who goes fishing has the advantage of setting forth impromptu whenever the spirit moves, and of always coming back with some kind of catch. For it cannot be denied that, while the angler, for the sake of a maximum of form, cheerfully puts up with a minimum of fish, the total lack of fish disconcerts him. Here his humbler colleague evinces a superiority, a purer amateurism. Knowing that the inner rewards are his, he has no shame at being outwardly "skunked." It is enough to have restored the unity of his spirit; he has been a-fishing.

A fair consideration of the man who goes fishing will do something to extend the tolerance and reduce the spiritual pride of the angling kind. Angling lends itself to strange perversions; the lowlier pursuit is ever integral and worthy. There are insensate, demoralized anglers who, borrowing the professional fisherman's quite legitimate desire of fish, employ strange artifices. Bottom baits, spinning, or twirling; likenesses of creeping and hopping things there are; nay, one reprobate we have met who shamelessly displayed a moleskin mouse which, twitched on a lake, he held was infallibly appetizing. Such fanatics pursue fish with the ungraceful ardors of a Calvinist doggedly treading the primrose path. They lack the delicacy of the angler, the geniality of the man who goes fishing, and the economic warrant of the pot-fisherman.

It may be urged and should be frankly admitted that the man who goes fishing has the defects of his qualities. Whereas the angler is usually temperate, keeping training as it were, the man who goes fishing is likely to accelerate with stimulants the oncoming of cosmic sympathy. In fact, there is something receptive and sponge-like in his texture; he absorbs either from within or without. To many, on the other hand, the mild progressive narcotization of sun and wind and lapping water is sufficient. These are the elect of the class. There must be times when the angler, substituting laboriously the niceties of his recreation for the rigors of his daily task, envies just a little some motionless vague figure squatted in a punt from the side of which depends inertly a mighty cord. Yet there may be rarer moments, when the trout are leaping, in which the man who goes fishing likewise envies just a little the finished art of the angler.

BUSINESS AND PLEASURE.

A few days ago, an item of news which attracted considerable attention told how a man who had begun life as a bank messenger at the age of fourteen rose to the presidency of the greatest bank in Chicago. Mr. Reynolds, it

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was stated, "has never lost a day from sickness; he has never taken a vacation that did not have business inside; he does not drink; he does not smoke; he does not play bridge; he does not play golf; he has no favorite author; he has no hobby but banking; he has no country residence; he does not even take exercise; he works nine hours a day." Mr. Reynolds himself declared that he had adopted as a rule of life the maxim, "Make your business your pleasure." Putting this and that together, one might pleasantly conclude that brilliant outward success and complete inward satisfaction were both within the reach of all of us: work all the time and have unbounded love for your work —that is the sovereign prescription to procure not only success, but also happiness.

Of course, this illusion can be entertained only for a moment; the problem of life obviously admits of no such simple solution. Even if we were to suppose that everybody could follow the prescription if he chose, and that it would be a good thing if everybody did follow it, we should be confronted, first of all, by the manifest impossibility that the result should be similar to that recorded in the case of Mr. Reynolds. High distinction for everybody is a contradiction in terms. It is only in comic opera that the prospect is held out for *all* to become rulers of the Queen's Navee as the reward for sticking close to their desks. There are millions who start in life as messengers or the like; there are tens of thousands who are faithful, competent, and industrious; but those who reach the top must of necessity be counted only by the hundreds. To tell everybody, therefore, to follow Mr. Reynolds's example, with the expectation that this will lead to like achievement, would be obtaining business virtue on false pretences.

As for the maxim, "Make your business your pleasure," it is in itself excellent. To take pleasure or satisfaction in one's work is a prime requirement of contentment; and if a man can have an absorbing love of his work he has gone far toward solving the problem of happiness. In some pursuits, too, it is possible for large numbers of persons to have this unbounded absorption in the labors to which their lives are devoted. The whole tribe of German university professors—as they were, at least, before the commercialization of German life in these latter years—might be reckoned in this class; and there are many artists and musicians who, without achieving high rank or notable artistic success, find a like joy in their labors. But in most fields of activity, such keen satisfaction in the pursuit of the daily business is possible only if a man feels that he is exercising unusual powers and accomplishing unusual results. A man may well be satisfied to be simply an industrious and competent cashier, or foreman, or manager, or what not; but, unless he has a sadly limited range of thought and feeling, he can hardly find that this occupation of itself supplies all the pleasure and gratification that he has reason to look for in the world about him.

There is nothing, therefore, to regret, in the fact that we are not all equally great lovers of work. There is room in the world for an indefinite number of comfortable, easy-going people—people who do not shirk work, but whose appetite for it is limited. But for people of the other kind, who find unfailing joy in ceaseless toil, there is only a limited amount of accommodation. It is for them, indeed, the saying has been invented that there is always room on top; but the saying is rather a truism than a truth. There is always room on top for those persons who can get there; but for those who cannot, it would be folly to order their lives on a plan expressly based on the supposition that they can. Here in America, we are quite as much in need of encouragement to make pleasure a business as to make business a pleasure. Both rules are good in their degree; neither is absolute. Keep your nose to the grindstone by all means, if you enjoy it; but don't tell everybody else that he must enjoy it as much as you do. There is room for a vast difference of tastes in this matter; and the difference of tastes is in itself a good. No one type of man, and no one attitude toward life, should suffice for a whole people; and if there is one thing more than another in which we should benefit by the infusion of a somewhat alien spirit, it is in the appreciation of those pleasures of life which are to be had from a free-hearted use of leisure.

HISTORICAL LITERATURE IN AUSTRALASIA.

SYDNEY, June 1.

Some twenty years ago, the Government of New South Wales decided to publish its early manuscript records. The gentleman commissioned conceived his duty to consist in the composition of an historical narrative from those documents. After the printing of two volumes on these lines, the work was arrested, and the publication of the documents began in 1893. They fill seven considerable volumes, which must remain the foundation of a critical history of Australia. It is fifty years since New Zealand collected in a volume of parliamentary papers the instructive reports of select committees of the British Parliament and other official documents connected with the early colonization and settlement of the islands. At that point, for half a century, the task was left. Then, more than ten years ago, an instructed and capable inquirer, Robert McNab, barrister and farmer, latterly legislator and minister, devoted himself to collecting all discoverable documents relating to the early history of the most southern part of New Zealand. Not only Southland itself, as the portion is termed, but the adjacent islands were his objective, though not the fields of his research, since no documents were to be found there. In Tasmania, Sydney, and London, where he ransacked the Record Office and the British Museum; in many American cities —Salem, Boston, and New Bedford, Nantucket, Providence, and Newport, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Washington; and in Madrid and Paris—not yet in St. Petersburg, though he does not despair of it—he found the precious materials of his historical labors.

What was it he found, and what did it tell? Such documents as have never before, perhaps, been regarded as materials for history—chiefly the log-books of ancient voyages. Of one such find, he tells with the subdued enthusiasm of the fortunate collector. In "the magnificent collections of the Essex Institute," Mass., Mr. McNab had the good luck to discover a volume, "got, no one knows where," containing three precious logs, especially that of the ship Britannia, which landed the first sealing gang on the coast of New Zealand in 1793. How far afield this indefatigable researcher has gone appears from the facts and scenes now first drawn from the narratives of two great navigators—the Spaniard, Malaspina, and the Russian, Bellingshausen. All these documents he has printed copiously in his "Murihiku and the Southern Islands," published in 1907 after nine years' research. Two years of further research brought within his command such a mass of additional materials as compelled him to reconstruct his work. It now appears under a similar title—"Murihiku: a History of the

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South Island of New Zealand and the Islands adjacent . . . from 1642 to 1835" (Christchurch: Whitcombe & Tombs). He has extended the scope of his work in both time and space. He now carries it back to the visit of Tasman and brings it down to the early days of British colonization. Mr. McNab has the merit of discovering the fact that New Zealand had a remarkable early history, and to him it is the most fascinating period of her annals. Few will agree with him, but all will admit that he has revealed a wonderful unknown period, when the sea-elephant hunters and the whalers lorded it over the shores of a new land. He has first described their methods and daily life, told of the discovery of the various islands, and narrated the genesis of antipodean commerce. A book so completely original, containing matter so absolutely new, and so thoroughly documented, is seldom published, and much of it concerns American readers, who will find in it new lights on their early maritime history.

National bibliography follows in the wake of the publication of national documents. It is long since the second French Empire issued a bibliography of its history. More than twenty years ago the librarian of the London Athenæum, amid the laughter of his *confrères*, quixotically undertook to produce single-handed, if aid were not forthcoming, a bibliography of English history. The British colonies, which are ahead of the Motherland in so many other things, are ahead of her in this. Many years ago the Public Library of Sydney brought out a bibliography of the seven colonies. In 1889 New Zealand took a step in advance. Its then parliamentary librarian, James Collier, published under the auspices of the Government a bibliography of the literature relating to the colony. It had some special features. Appended to each title in the chronological catalogue there were notes, sometimes lengthy, containing a précis of the work, and embodying information, sometimes recondite, relative to the book. Next, besides the author and the title indexes, there was a classified catalogue, scientifically arranging the contents of all the publications catalogued under thirty-four heads, so as to make them at once available for historians or students.

Dr. Hocken of Dunedin has now published, under his own name, an enlarged and improved edition of his predecessor's work.* He has closely followed Collier's plan, down even to the details of the typography. He has also supplied the unavoidable deficiencies of Collier's work, and he has brought it up to date. How considerably the subject has grown on his hands will appear if we compare the bulk of the two wholes and of one of their sections. Collier's volume consists of some 1,200 titles; Hocken's, of perhaps 6,000. Again, the number of works or portions of works relative to missions in Collier amounts to 59, while in Hocken it exceeds 130. The disparity is, however, exaggerated by the inclusion in the later work, not only of publications relating to New Zealand, but of all works published in that country. This, as well as the inclusion of works not relating to New Zealand by authors well-known in connection with New Zealand, seems a mistaken policy. Similarly questionable is the long list of publications in the Maori language. Yet this has its value, and a similar defence might be made for the other illegitimate inclusions.

Where Dr. Hocken's policy seems altogether indefensible is his verbatim appropriation of his predecessor's notes, sometimes long and elaborate, on works which the doctor has often not seen, and this without using inverted commas or appending the name of the author. Analyses of ethnological theories traced through a series of erudite works, such as those of Lesson and Quatrefages, Fornander and Lang, and ascertainments of authorship in the case of anonymous or pseudonymous treatises, have been "conveyed" without a word of acknowledgment. They will in consequence be read in future as the offspring of Dr. Hocken's research.

These criticisms being made, the work may be strongly eulogized. It is accurate, comprehensive, and complete. The excellent notes often embody information, personal, literary, and historical, accumulated during half a lifetime of unintermitted labor. It may be doubted if a more exhaustive bibliography exists.

We are still on historical ground when we turn to A. St. Ledger's "Socialism in Queensland" (Macmillan). For, if in purpose it is a keen and unsparing polemic against Socialism, the work is historical in form, and professes to give a truthful account of the origin and developments of the socialist movement in Australia and New Zealand. That had its origin in two famous American books — George's "Progress and Poverty" and Bellamy's "Looking Backward." The first gave birth to the movement for the nationalization of the land in New Zealand, where it has had many legislative developments, and whence it has spread to Australia and now to England. This phase of Socialism the author omits, and devotes himself to that aspect of it which consists in the nationalization of the agencies of production, exchange, and distribution. This form of it had its origin in Bellamy's romance, which converted William Lane into a socialist. Lane was the uneducated son of a Warwickshire farm laborer, but no one would discover the fact from his crystalline and sometimes dainty English diction. A journalist, he founded the *Worker* to spread his new faith. He it was who devised the motto of the Labor party in Queensland: "Socialism in our time." From Queensland the gospel passed to the other States, largely pervading the Labor policy in them and in the Australian Commonwealth. How all this happened is vividly told. One or two criticisms reduce but slightly the value of the book. It does not take account of the tendency towards Socialism inherent in all the Australasian States. Particularly, it gives no adequate statement of its multifarious manifestations in New Zealand. And the author, who is a Senator for Queensland in the Federal Parliament, naturally exaggerates the part of Queensland in the movement, and perhaps the part played by Lane in Queensland. Otherwise, the volume is as instructive as interesting.

We are still exploring the field of history when we accompany Dr. T. S. Hall in his "Geological Rambles in Victoria" (Melbourne: T. C. Lothian), though now it is very ancient history. Dr. Hall is everywhere the geologist. To him the aspect and the flora of a district are the natural expression of the structure and composition of the rocks. Geology must supply the key to physical geography and botany; we may add, to biology, ethnology, and sociology. There are many instructive lessons to be learned from our field geologist. While he admits that "the great moulding agency is running water," he finds districts in Victoria where catastrophes must be invoked to explain the fractures of the earth's crust. In Victoria, too, he finds evidence of a long and severe glacial period compared with which the ice-age of Northern Europe and America is a thing of yesterday. The variety of the ice-borne rocks is wonderful, and proves that there were, not one, but several, glacial periods. The simply written volume is rendered attractive by 39 illustrations and maps. J. C.

*"A Bibliography of the Literature relating to New Zealand." Wellington: Government Printing Office.

Correspondence.

THE SOURCE OF POE'S "SOME WORDS WITH A MUMMY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A dozen or more of Poe's tales have been traced to their sources. Griswold a good many years ago made it clear that the original of "The Pit and the Pendulum" was to be found in a tale in *Blackwood's*. Professor Woodberry, collaborating with Stedman in their well-known edition of Poe's works, pointed out the sources of "King Pest," "Hop Frog," "Metzengerstein," and "The Masque of the Red Death," and indicated partial sources for some four or five other stories; and Stedman, in the same volumes, touched

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upon Poe's indebtedness to the German E. T. A. Hoffmann. Within the last few years Professor Palmer Cobb of the University of North Carolina has examined more minutely the problem of Poe's indebtedness to Hoffmann. And there have been other notes in the magazines. But no one appears to have suggested a source for Poe's extravagant tale "Some Words With a Mummy." The original of this tale is to be found, I believe, in R. M. Bird's novel "Sheppard Lee." This novel was published anonymously at Philadelphia in 1836, and was reviewed by Poe in September of the same year in the *Southern Literary Messenger* (see "Poe's Works," Virginia Edition, IX, pp. 126-139). "Some Words With a Mummy" first appeared in the *American Whig Review* for April, 1845.

The chief incident in Poe's tale, it will be recalled, is the restoration to life of an Egyptian mummy by means of a galvanic battery. Bird's novel recounts a series of transmigrations of the soul of its hero, Sheppard Lee, who had met death by accident while digging one night for the treasure of Captain Kidd. His spirit betakes itself first into the body of an asthmatic old squire of the neighborhood, then into the body of a Philadelphia dandy, and after other such feats of metempsychosis brings up finally in the person of a slave, Nigger Tom, on a Virginia plantation. As Nigger Tom, the hero of the story is suspected of having taken part in a slave insurrection, and is hanged and buried. Shortly after burial, his body is taken up by some medical students, who wish to test their skill with the dissecting knife. But before beginning operations, one of their number suggests that they first experiment on the body with an electric battery, and, this suggestion being adopted, the experiment is made as in Poe's tale and with like results. The spirit of Sheppard Lee then takes possession of the body of one of the students who had engaged in the experiment and had been frightened to death by its outcome; and in the guise of this young man it soon has the good fortune to come across the body which it had originally occupied, now, however, reduced to a state of complete mummification and on exhibition in a collection of curiosities displayed by an old German doctor who had lived in the neighborhood of Sheppard Lee's searches after hidden treasure. The spirit, acting in the person of this student, manages to break open the glass case in which the mummy is enclosed and to make its way back into its body, and at the same time Sheppard Lee is fully restored to life again, and the story comes to an end.

It was out of the last two of these episodes, if my theory be correct, that Poe compounded his tale. One furnished the idea of restoring a body to life through the agency of electricity, the other supplied the notion of the resurrection of a mummy. The two episodes are juxtaposed in Bird's novel, and are summarized in the same paragraph in Poe's review. By combining the two, Poe obtained the necessary unity of action, and also increased the absurdity of his story—evidently meant as an extravaganza.

Besides these episodes, there are in Bird's romance two minor details which may have suggested to Poe similar situations in his story. These are, first, the snapping, or batting, of the subject's eyes as it begins to show signs of restored animation; and, secondly, the bestowing by the half-resuscitated body of a prodigious blow upon the stomach of the ring-leader of the experimenters. But these minor similarities may be mere coincidences, and of no significance for my purpose—what is almost surely the case with a further coincidence, in that the improbabilities of both stories are explained away on the theory that all had happened in a dream.

I may add that certain parallels between Bird's novel and Poe's more famous story, "The Gold Bug," are also, in my judgment, accidental; though we find in Bird's story not only the digging for Captain Kidd's gold under a large tree in the depths of a forest, but also in Jim Jumble, with his fears as to his master's sanity, and in Sheppard Lee, with his attempts to give the faithful old darkey the slip on the occasion of his excursions in search of gold, faint suggestions of both Jupiter and Legrand in Poe's story.

KILLIS CAMPBELL.

The University of Texas, June 10.

MISREPRESENTATIONS OF SPAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I be permitted to disagree with an opinion recently expressed by one of your critics in regard to Mrs. Villiers-Wardell's "Spain of the Spanish?" "In all matters connected with the newer intellectual and artistic movement in Spain," we are told, "Mrs. Villiers-Wardell is an intelligent and diverting guide." Diverting the book frequently is; but that its author is an intelligent or safe guide to things intellectual and artistic in Spain, any Hispanist will deny.

The chapter on Modern Literature, by far the worst in the book, betrays a lack of knowledge which is abysmal. For example, on page 48, the author naïvely remarks of Menéndez y Pelayo: "The writer has already produced a number of important works." An encouraging pat on the back which ought to inspire the dean of Spanish criticism and the author of "Las ideas estéticas en España" to renewed effort. We are further told that he has completed eight volumes of his edition of the works of Lope de Vega. Thirteen is the correct number. This error would be too insignificant to mention if it did not reveal the method employed by the author in the compilation of this chapter. The statement is taken from a ten-year-old edition of Fitzmaurice-Kelly's "History of Spanish Literature" (New York, 1900, p. 499). The whole chapter is largely a rehash of this well-known text-book. Unfortunately Mrs. Villiers-Wardell frequently departs from her authority and then it is that she is prone to fall into error.

A serious oversight may be noticed in the short biography devoted to Pareda. The greatest of modern Spanish novelists is everywhere spoken of in the present tense, and the author is only too evidently unaware of his death. Pareda died in March, 1906. The failure to notice so important a fact is inexcusable in a chapter which comments upon so recent a work as Blasco Ibañez's "Los muertos mandan." Again the antiquated edition of Fitzmaurice-Kelly has proved a broken reed, and the author's lack of first-hand information stands revealed. Although somewhat more familiar with the bull-ring than with Spanish literature, Mrs. Villiers-Wardell makes a similar error in the chapter devoted to Sports and Pastimes. She had not heard of the tragic death of Machaquito.

If errors of fact are frequent throughout the book, errors of judgment are no less numerous. The chapters relating to Spanish politics, for example, are especially misleading. We are told that the King and Queen have won the affections of the Catalans; that "Cataluña as a storm-centre of revolution has fallen into disrepute"; that "the people have confidence in Maura's government, and sooner or later the Regionalists will, in all probability, join forces with the Monarchical party," etc. Last summer's revolt gave a decisive answer to these and similar optimistic statements. The tragic events of last year could not have been foreseen; yet the most elementary acquaintance with real conditions would have prevented the utterance of statements so contrary to the truth. Señor Maura, now happily out of power, is spoken of as a progressive, enlightened statesman. One would almost imagine him to be a reformer instead of a bulwark of reaction. Is Señor Maura's repeal of the civil marriage law so soon forgotten? But most remarkable is the author's apparent approval of the infamous Conde de Romanones (p. 99-100) who, with other politicians of high rank, long enjoyed the unconstitutional privilege of private coinage, thus doubling the value of the yield of the silver mines which they controlled. So flagrant did this abuse become that in the summer of 1908 an honest minister of the treasury felt obliged to withdraw from circulation nineteen issues of the silver duro, good and bad alike. Of this official freebooter Mrs. Villiers-Wardell naïvely remarks: "He is a man of untiring energy and enterprise, and already he has, by successful speculations, greatly augmented the very considerable fortune left him by his father."

Although many more errors might be pointed out, enough has now been said to show that Mrs. Villiers-Wardell's book is not a trustworthy guide. More than almost any other country of Europe Spain has been misrepresented and misunderstood. The dilettante traveller has claimed the land as his own. Théophile Gautier, Washington Irving, George Borrow, and De Amicis are not guiltless, but charm of style has deservedly caused their books to rank as classics. Most recent writers of books of Spanish travel are neither conscientiously accurate in the presentation of fact nor possessed of a literary touch sufficient to bring pardon for other shortcomings. Honorable exception must be made of René Bazin's charming and sympathetic "Terre d'Espagne" and Havelock Ellis's admirable "Soul of Spain."

GEORGE TYLER NORTHUP.

Princeton, N. J., June 15.

THE EARTH OF APOLLONIUS—WAS IT INDIAN?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since calling attention in your columns to the perfect manner in which the

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Sūrya Siddhānta's conception of the earth, with its two heaven-reaching antipodal polar mountains, interprets the peculiar terms employed by Apollonius in "Argonautica," iii, 158, I have seen Bergk's remarks on the passage as found in his "Kleine philologische Schriften," II, 704. "That two mountains should be mentioned," he says, "is peculiar." He confesses his inability to explain the point. He raises the question whether an "error," or a "misunderstanding" on the part of the poet, must not underlie his language. But the words to which Bergk pays no attention, δοιὼ πόλοι, are as plain as words can be, and they fix the location of the two mountains, not in the East or in the West, or in "the East *and* West," but at the earth's two poles. (Permit me to refer to my recent book, "The Earliest Cosmologies," pp. 79-81, 174, 205). Bergk's difficulty in dealing with the "Mountain of Sunrise" and "Mountain of Sunset" is precisely the one which troubled the Assyriologists until Professor Sayce reached the correct conclusion that the two were "one and the same." See his "Hibbert Lectures," p 361. Since that time he has come to see that this one identical mountain, behind which the sun disappeared every evening, and from behind which it emerged every morning, was in the highest north, even at the pole. And the moment one comes to this insight, the strange assertion of Maspero, to the effect that, in their earliest periods, both the Babylonians and Egyptians "believed that the sun and moon revolved round the earth in a horizontal plane," becomes perfectly easy of explanation, for the sun and moon do so revolve at the pole.

If any of our masters in Greek literature have lighted upon a second passage similar to this in Apollonius, all students in comparative mythology and comparative cosmology will be delighted to learn of it. What would not one give for the lost verse from Ibycus, referred to by Bergk?

WILLIAM FAIRFIELD WARREN.

Boston University, June 14.

DEBATING AT SCHOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Nation* performs an excellent service in its conservative treatment of current tendencies, but now and then it makes an error in condemning that which is new. Such an error, I believe, was made in the editorial of a recent number which attacked the present custom of having students debate modern topics in preference to questions concerning the ancient world. Training for citizenship is undoubtedly one of the primary purposes of the public schools. This being granted, will it not be necessary to concede the corollary, that the discussion of present-day topics by students in schools and colleges will tend to realize this important purpose?

Every one who has given the subject much thought will admit that educational methods are, as a rule, most conservative. The average pedagogue is prone to teach in the same way as he was taught. He clings reverently and firmly to the pedagogic principles of the mediæval schoolmen. This tendency, however, to have the students debate live questions rather than thoroughly dead ones has in it the elements of progress and promise. The student by studying these questions is not only fitted for citizenship in his own country, and in the world, but he at the same time becomes familiar with the best sources of information upon current questions. For the great majority of students in the secondary schools, who cannot go to college, this reference work upon topics of present-day importance will mean the formation of a habit of reading in periodicals which have in them many of the essentials of a liberal education. Such work in the schools will make the public libraries educational centres instead of dispensaries of the latest popular fiction. It will give the nation that which it so much needs—intelligent citizens who are not to be deluded and deceived by the yellow press and the curbstone orator.

Then, too, there are the pupils and students themselves; surely some consideration should be given to their preference. From my own observations I believe that they prefer to study the vital questions of the present rather than the dead issues of the past. One of the most inspiring recitations I ever conducted was a general discussion by high-school students in a class in modern history of militarism vs. arbitration. The students had prepared themselves carefully by reading magazine articles, international conciliation bulletins, and reference books in the public library, so that they had a fairly intelligent idea of what they were talking about.

This book to which you refer in the editorial mentioned may be all that the editorial would indicate, and more, but your condemnation of the principle associated with it is unjust. Does the *Nation* aim to support worthy and well-qualified progress, or is it so bound to the past that it can see no good in anything new?

CLARENCE GREEN.

Tacoma, Wash., June 11.

THE TARIFF AND WAGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For as many years as any of us can think back, we have been told that the need for high tariff duties, besides the procuring of revenue, was the protection of American against foreign "pauper" labor. Where European manufacturers employ female labor principally, especially in the so-called "house industries," the wages paid are really so far below any prevailing in the United States that were we attempting that sort of manufacturing, competition on equal lines would be hopeless. However, such is not the case; we have no large numbers of hand-workers skilled in lace-making, embroidering, and the like—the great industries of the United States are built up by means of labor-saving machinery, and it is their products that must compete in the world's markets. Why we are able so to do, our higher wage rate notwithstanding, facts that have come to my knowledge will illustrate.

A New York manufacturing engineer, placed in charge of its English branch by an American firm, told me within the week that the 200 employees under his control, receiving less than half American wages, turned out less than half the amount of work that the same number engaged in similar work on our side do. The profits over here averaged so much less on the output than with the home company, that he was sent over for the very purpose of endeavoring to make this "pauper labor" as productive as that of the high-priced workers in the United States.

A few years ago an American in charge of a similar industry in Berlin employing upward of a thousand men put their outturn as two-thirds that of Americans in the same line.

It has been pointed out, time and again, that comparisons of wages without statements of what such wages represent in production are valueless and misleading. Also, it is necessary to know what the money wages procure in the way of the necessities of life in the countries between which comparisons are made. Modern brick four-room cottages were pointed out to me in English villages, of which the rent is five shillings a week, $1.20; and they had ground attached, large enough to furnish the family vegetables.

A tariff commission can do no more enlightening and useful work than to bring out the facts which will make possible real and intelligent comparisons on the above lines.

MAX LOWENTHAL.

London, June 9.

A RARE PAMPHLET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer of News for Bibliophiles in the *Nation* for June 16 calls attention to the discovery of a fourth copy of "The Humble Request of His Majesties loyall Subjects," issued by Winthrop and others from Yarmouth, "aboard the Arbela, April 7, 1630," and he justly lays stress upon the value and importance of the pamphlet. He and others interested in our colonial history will be glad to know that there is a fifth copy, in perfect condition, in the library of All Souls College, Oxford.

CHARLES M. ANDREWS.

Johns Hopkins University, June 17.

GEN. GRANT'S FATHER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In November, 1865, I was on a Pennsylvania Railroad train, eastbound from Pittsburgh. In the next seat was an old fellow—that's the way you would describe him—with "country" written all over him. He opened a conversation with our party, and asked if we were going to Washington; said he was going there; and added, with pauses, "I've got a son in Washington—Gen. Grant." Of course, the response was, "Indeed," etc.; and so, feeling encouraged, he turned about with his arm over the back of the seat and proceeded to "tell all about" his son.

I remember it all as plain as yesterday, though I have never written it down till now.

"Yes, he's my son, and he's made quite a name for himself." Long pause and meditation. Speaking slowly and with a great deal of repetition and a country manner, but much earnestness: "They are talking about making him President. They don't want to make him President. He's no man for President. He'd be no good in that place. A soldier is what he's fit for. He ain't good for anything else but a soldier. Why! I've had to set him up in business more than once. He was never any good

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in business. He's just a soldier; he's good at that. No, he ain't the man for President. He wouldn't make a good one."

And so on, to this effect and substantially in these words. I remember too many of the words and phrases to be mistaken. It was a striking incident, and I have often thought of it since.

Good, straight-forward, simple-minded old man! That was Jesse R. Grant; and it was six months after the war.

E. R. FRENCH.

Sheridan, Wyo., June 10.

Literature.

A FINE OLD ENGLISH TORY.

Gathorne Hardy, First Earl of Cranbrook: A Memoir, with Extracts from His Diary and Correspondence. Edited by the Hon. Alfred E. Gathorne-Hardy. 2 vols., with portraits and other illustrations. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $7 net.

One by one the biographies of the later Victorian statesmen of the second rank are coming to light. Within a few years, Dufferin, Northcote, Randolph Churchill, Northbrook, Lytton have had their lives written, some of them with such speed as to suggest that biographers realize the necessity of grasping at the brief immortality accorded to most public men. Salisbury is still uncommemorated, and probably years will elapse before the documents are released which alone can give permanent interest to his unsympathetic personality. But Gathorne Hardy, although he died as late as 1906, already belonged to the past generation, and he was not sufficiently at the heart of things to share exclusive confidences and political secrets which it would be indiscreet to publish now. Doubtless, as his son and editor announces, passages have been suppressed and names withheld in the material printed; but there can be little left out that was essential. As to Gathorne Hardy himself, we have here all the elements for a full-length life-like portrait of the most typical, enlightened Tory of the Victorian era. If only one book could be preserved to exhibit to posterity modern Toryism in its most comprehensive and convincing embodiment, that book should be this memoir of Gathorne Hardy.

He was born in 1814, of a middle-class family, which traced its origin to an Irish laborer living in Yorkshire in 1670. The statesman's grandfather laid the basis of a large fortune by buying the Lowmoor Iron Works in 1789; his father was a successful barrister, a judge, and a member of Parliament. He himself went through the brutal schooling which was then supposed to be necessary to the education of English gentlemen. In 1833, he entered Oriel College, Oxford, where he acquitted himself creditably; he read law and was admitted to the bar in London, and soon established a lucrative practice. In 1855, he was elected to Parliament from Bradford, and thenceforth until the general election of 1895, he was continuously in public life, either as commoner, minister, or member of one or another important commission. In the course of his career he was offered every portfolio, and at different times he served as President of the Poor Law Board, Home Secretary, Secretary for War, Secretary for India, and President of the Council. In every position his chief characteristic was his talent for routine work. No better bureaucrat ever sat in an English cabinet. He was neither a great legislator nor a great orator; but he was invaluable to the Premiers under whom he served, because he could be relied upon to defend their platform with unfailing loyalty and discretion, and to carry out their measures with promptness, honesty, and thoroughness. He had "no nonsense about him," which is the highest praise that an Englishman, be he peer or potboy, can bestow. Gathorne Hardy lacked magnetism, but that is a quality which modern Tory statesmen have been so proud to dispense with that they finally chose for their leader Salisbury, who had not only no magnetism, but not even manners.

The most pertinent part of Hardy's memoir covers the thirty years from Disraeli's reëntrance to power in 1874. The Eastern Question and Turkish War, the Berlin Conference, the Bulgarian atrocities, Afghanistan, and Gladstone's unprecedented Midlothian campaign, are the topics that come uppermost during the earlier years of this period; Home Rule, with its collateral problems, occupies the last two decades. Amid the tides and tempests of every crisis, he stood inevitably on his Toryism, like "Teneriff or Atlas unremoved." He had no doubts; from first to last the question presented to him only one side—his side. He looked upon the Liberal proposals in regard to Ireland as either insane or deliberately wicked; so that he seemed to himself to be thwarting the subversive efforts of hordes who had broken loose from prison or from an asylum. And it cannot be denied that he defended his cause as stanchly as any Crusader. Nevertheless, we fail to thrill at his devotion, not because it was not sincere, but because it was tainted with that class selfishness which is the essence of Tory, Junker, or Bourbon ideals.

Hardy, indeed, never suspected that he was not unselfish. A long experience in caste control has bred in England a peculiar form of cant. In America your protected manufacturer can hardly restrain a smile when he declares in public that the protection which makes him a millionaire is wholly for the benefit of the American laborer: he knows that nobody believes that he believes that. But in England, cant has so sunk into the very marrow of the privileged classes that some of them honestly deceive themselves in their attitude towards politics, religion, and society. Gathorne Hardy was one of these. During his ninety-two years he never seems to have questioned the divine sanction of Toryism, either as a system, or in any of its parts. We see at once how homogeneous he was if we contrast him with Malmesbury, among the elders, or with Balfour and Curzon to-day. Liberalism and Radicalism have also their special forms of cant, but these although they may be equally objectionable, are different.

One of the chief charms of memoirs like this is the sidelights they throw on public men. Much depends, however, on the memoirist's gift for reading character and his skill in depicting it. Hardy was neither subtle nor vivid. In most of his records and letters here quoted we find him using, even for expressing his inmost emotions, that impersonal, not to say sterilized style, which English newspapers adopted long ago for reporting public speeches. Nobody would be surprised to read in the London *Times* that "the noble lord rose and said that he regarded it his duty, in reply to the Right Honorable Gentleman who had last spoken, to express the opinion boldly, but always subject to correction, if later reports from His Majesty's Meteorological Bureau should fail to confirm his honest conviction, that it was going to sprinkle." Thus guardedly does Hardy commune with himself in the earlier sections of his journal. It is only in denouncing Gladstone that his language approaches the picturesque. Every historian who aspires to know the state of mind of the unadulterated Tory towards Gladstone—a state of mind which became an obsession, and greatly influenced British politics—will have to read Gathorne Hardy's criticisms of him. We hold no brief for the People's William, but we confess that we are surprised at some of Hardy's remarks. "Having broken in upon the principle of property, sacred, and private," he writes, December 19, 1885, "he [Gladstone] will probably try his hand at severing the United Kingdom." In another place, Gladstone's "appointments roused an instinctive abhorrence in every gentleman." And again: "The conscience, which Mrs. Gladstone assured me, always guided him, and allowed him to sleep tranquilly, *was not a light but a darkness*, and misled him, to the permanent injury of his country." (The italics are ours.) And as a sample of the Tory's historical acumen, we commend his contrast between Bismarck and Gladstone—"construction versus destruction. . . . One made an Empire, the other

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nearly destroyed one." Nevertheless, Lord Cranbrook, as Gathorne Hardy became in 1878, seems to have entertained the belief, we will not say the *hope*, that Gladstone might possibly get to heaven. They were, for many years, the foremost lay members of the Anglican Church, but Cranbrook was a hardheaded, "practical" churchman, while Gladstone delighted in weaving theological subtleties and in settling ecclesiastical quibbles.

Quite different is Cranbrook's verdict on Disraeli. The versatile Jew's apparent flightiness and flamboyance troubled the "no-nonsense" Britisher a little at first; but from the moment when Disraeli became the mainstay of the Tories, and the Queen's favorite minister, Cranbrook came to have an almost unlimited admiration for him. He still maintained his private opinion in matters of detail, but, so far as appears, he accepted the "Chief's" guidance on general policy. How little either of them really possessed the statesman's foresight is shown by the immense surprise with which each beheld the shipwreck of the Tory government in 1880. Yet what could be expected of a flippant Premier who could write to his colleague on December 10, 1879: "It certainly is a relief, this drenching rhetoric has at length ceased, *but I have never read a word of it.*" The "drenching rhetoric" was Gladstone's Midlothian speeches, which drove Beaconsfield from office; yet, with characteristic insouciance, the Tory chief and his lieutenants did not think they were worth paying attention to. That is the very strawberry mark of Toryism—to despise your opponent to the point of ignoring his strength; and then your enemy gives you an unpleasant shock—as the Gladstonians gave the Conservatives in 1880, as the Boers gave the British Jingoes in 1899, and as the Germans have more recently done.

Hardy's pages give so true a picture of Tory environment that one sees clearly why it was that Disraeli held for twenty years the ascendency in a party whose leaders should have had *à priori* only distrust or contempt for a Jew, a cynical infidel, a writer of extravagant novels, a glib and shifty talker, a politician without convictions and without scruples. Disraeli possessed what they lacked—wit, mobility, audacity, and the art of getting returns. So a party which had floundered and gone down under the leadership of such aristocratic respectables as the Scotch Earl of Aberdeen and the English Earl of Derby did well to turn to Israel for its salvation.

Scores of other persons, great, small, and mediocre, are mentioned by Hardy, but very few of them stand out distinctly. Most of his associates he speaks of in non-committal phrases; occasionally, however, as in his references to Carnarvon and to the Fifteenth Earl of Derby, he allows his personal antipathy to peer out. His devotion to royalty was so unquestioning that he deplored, in 1889, the niggardliness of Parliament's provision for the Queen's large family. "It augurs ill for monarchy to be so thriftily treated," he remarks. The paradox did not occur to him that the two British sovereigns who had laid the heaviest permanent burdens on the British taxpayers were Charles II—the most profligate—and Victoria—the most virtuous. Like all other court writers of this period, Hardy takes so much care to state, in mentioning the Queen (or the Tecks or other members of the Royal Family), that she was "most gracious," or "most polite," that one cannot help suspecting that politeness was the exception and not the rule in that circle. Once, indeed, Hardy lets slip the interesting news that the Duke of Cambridge went to sleep at a dinner-party and that proceedings had to stop until he woke up.

We lay stress on the great value of these memoirs as a revelation of the highest type of English Tory in the Victorian era, because that is, we believe, their chief distinction. Through Gathorne Hardy we understand an entire species. What would we not give for a similarly exhaustive autobiographic confession of a Spanish grandee under Charles V, or of a Venetian procurator under Tommaso Mocenigo, or of a Roman patrician under the Antonines? The contribution to the political history of his time which Hardy makes is not to be disparaged; but it is of secondary importance compared with the biographical and caste considerations. His son has so selected from his father's mass of memoranda that we cannot follow consecutively any event or measure to its conclusion. Even the records for the first months of 1878, when, as Beaconsfield wrote him on March 27, "we are drifting into war," have so many gaps, that one must seek elsewhere in order to learn what the Tory Cabinet itself was doing. At almost every step throughout the two volumes the editor refers the reader to Morley's "Gladstone" for a clear and fair statement of the matter in question. This is a deserved tribute to John Morley, but a serious defect in biographical construction. The humor of elucidating Hardy by means of Gladstone, whom Hardy regarded as a fearful incarnation of the Spirit of Darkness, seems to have escaped the editor's notice. A few of the confidential letters that passed between Cranbrook and his colleagues have real importance. The long private dispatch from Lytton, describing the situation in India in the summer of 1878, may be regarded as an "original source." But, in general, the representative character of these memoirs gives them their highest value.

In emphasizing this fact, we have necessarily passed by some of the more personal matters. Gathorne Hardy had many excellent traits which are not the monopoly of Tories, but the possession of all sterling natures. His virtues, however, were almost exclusively practical. There is in the two volumes hardly a smile, or a twinkle of the eye—and that, in spite of the Irish peasant ancestor. So, too, there are few references to books, and none whatever to ideas: but a prevailing mastery of business facts and an unflagging interest in political administration. Although not born in the purple, Gathorne Hardy was predisposed to accept the aristocratic régime as the highest manifestation on earth of the Divine will. His talents and party service entitled him to a peerage, and the profits from the family iron works enabled him to accept it, instead of his being obliged, as he tells us Monty Corry was, to rely upon a rich aunt to finance his ascent to the House of Lords. There will always be Tories, but there will be no more Tories like him. A peerage recruited from the proprietors of yellow journals and of breweries, from successful promoters, and from transportation managers, has already gone far towards losing that glamour which used to wrap the British lords. Every one understands now that money is as indispensable for the maintenance of an aristocracy in England as for the creation of a plutocracy in America. The first Lord Cranbrook belonged to the earlier period, when the glamour had not yet been stripped off. What that glamour was—what the ideals and beliefs were which exhaled it—can nowhere be more concretely observed than in his Memoirs.

CURRENT FICTION.

Samuel the Seeker. By Upton Sinclair. New York: B. W. Dodge & Co.

The childlike youth, upon whom the world dawns as an object not hitherto observed, seems to be fairly taking his place as the most popular of modern heroes of fiction. Three recent examples, notable out of many, are Mr. Locke's Septimus, Mr. Herrick's Hugh Grant, and Mr. Sinclair's Samuel. Between the two latter there are especially strong resemblances. Samuel, like Hugh, is a farmer's boy, who has reached manhood before setting out to make a living, and to learn the meaning of life, in the cities. Like Hugh, he has grown up in a state of guileless innocence of the ways of the world such as may have been possible for rustic youth before the era of the telephone and the Sunday newspaper. Like Hugh, he must be accepted as the central figure in a parable, rather than a portrait drawn from the model.

The day comes when, eager and ingenuous, he sets out for New York from

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his native village. He is lured into danger by the first man he meets, robbed by the second, and cast forth, penniless and starving, into the busy town of "Lockmanville." This is a city built upon the sands of dishonor and selfishness. The arraignment of old man Lockman by a burglar acquaintance of Samuel's may be quoted as the basis for Mr. Sinclair's tale:

> He began by cheating his sisters out of their inheritance. Then he foreclosed a mortgage on a glass factory and went into the business . . . they say he burned the plant down for the insurance. . . . He made a crooked deal with some of the railroad people—gave them stock, you know, and got rebates. And he had some union leaders on his pay rolls; and he called strikes on his rivals, and when he had ruined them, he bought them out for a song. And when he had everything in his hands, and got tired of paying high wages, he fired some of the union men and forced a strike. Then he brought in some strike-breakers and ordered some thugs to slug them, and turned the police loose on the men—and that was the end of the unions. Meanwhile he'd been running the politics of the town, and he's given himself all the franchises. . . .

Nothing is omitted from the indictment of this all-round villain. And his wealth, Samuel finds, gives him power over all the supposably better element in Lockmanville society. In the end, Samuel makes up his mind to expose the rottenness of the place. His method is naïve to the point of ludicrousness—the method of the socialist agitator—to make a speech in public. The police forbid, but, backed up by the local socialist body, a meeting is attempted, which is quickly put down by the police, Samuel himself being knocked in the head by a "thug." And so the action ends with an inconclusive street squabble which evidently seems to Mr. Sinclair a meaning battle for the right. Mr. Herrick's Hugh Grant had no solution for the political and industrial corruption of American society: Mr. Sinclair's solution is Socialism.

The Taming of Red Butte Western. By Francis Lynde. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

It is a little difficult to see how a self-confessed coward could be brave enough to go through all the dangers and trials endured by Lidgerwood, superintendent of the Red Butte Western. The author, however, is not troubled by this at all. He sets forth the condition of the railway, and then describes Lidgerwood's attempts to better it. Without a doubt it was much in need of betterment. The engineers were mostly desperadoes, the firemen brutes, the switchmen ghouls, the dispatchers escaped convicts. The line was laid across the Red Desert, the chief town was named Angels, and wrecks happened every day. With all that we can understand why Lidgerwood shied at the appointment, when Ford, vice-president of the system, offered it to him. He told Ford candidly he was a coward. To prove it he related his experiences at the hold-up of a stage coach, in which he was riding with the girl he loved. After the highwaymen had departed with his money and the lady's rings, she asked why he had not shot the robbers dead with his revolver. He failed to show cause, whereupon she spoke bitter words and left him forever—or rather, for a year. But Ford still thought he could do it, and Lidgerwood spent the above-mentioned year wrestling with the Red Butte Western and his rascally subordinates. During this time, we are supposed to trace the transformation of the coward into the brave man. But Mr. Lynde's psychology is lame. He keeps insisting on Lidgerwood's cowardice, while he is making him do all sorts of courageous things. Not till the end, when the author realizes the responsibilities of the modern novelist, does he abruptly change front and admit that Lidgerwood is a hero after all.

Maurin, the Illustrious: A Translation from the French of Jean Aicard by Alfred Allinson. New York: John Lane Co.

Dr. Mitchell and Mr. Hewlett were none too successful in their attempts to revive the *picaro*, perhaps because the one turned to eighteenth-century Italy, and an English "fool-errant," the other to the great French Revolution. For M. Aicard has drawn something of a *picaro*, too, in his woodsman Maurin; and has been better rewarded for his pains by wisely eschewing historical romance. The present is his time, a corner of Provence his scene. And his Maurin is the happy result: a Provençal who comes near to rivalling Tartarin. Like Daudet with his Tartarin, M. Aicard has found it profitable to devote more than one volume to his hero's fortunes.

And such volumes! This sequel to "The Diverting Adventures" runs to more than four hundred pages. The characters in the new volume are those of its predecessor. Maurin is the same "Don Juan of the Woods" to the end, dying of a wound inflicted by the hand of woman. His anecdotes are, perhaps, a shade less piquant. The author is grown almost moralistic; though when Pastouré, Maurin's best friend, waxes metaphysical, his philosophy is ever of the simplest: and not the less sound for that.

Best of all, however, are the accounts of weddings, funerals, and political reunions, in this vivid Southland; where men are, as Daudet expressed it, forever drunk with the alcohol of the sun. A fine, earthy story, wholly dependent upon incident and character, with no plot to speak of, but redolent of the woods and marshland where its hero fills his game-bag so easily and so well. A novel—if one may so name it—spicy with love and sport and apt escapes from constables. Mr. Allinson is to be praised for his competent Englishing of these lively occurrences.

The Garden at 19. By Edgar Jepson. New York: Wessels & Bissell Co.

A London bachelor who has come into a little money buys a house in Hertford Park. He soon discovers that an air of mystery hangs about the place, and that the other houses in the street, with the exception of No. 19, are empty. Strange sounds and odors, and stranger emanations of an indefinable nature, assail him from this garden. He finds the house is occupied by a young girl and her morose uncle. The former he, of course, falls in love with; the latter turns out to be a necromancer, from the terror of whose influence the girl is to be rescued. The subject, baldly stated, may seem rather puerile. As a matter of fact, Mr. Jepson has surrounded the proceedings of the necromancer and his group of adepts with a sense of mystery which is likely to stir a creeping of the flesh on most readers. The first coming of the terror in the invisible beast is thoroughly effective, and the rites in the garden about the statue of Pan are veiled with just the right amount of ambiguity, leaving the reader in doubt whether the effect on the performers is the work of hypnotic suggestion or of some real emanation from the abyss. Unfortunately, the terror does not maintain itself quite to the end of the book.

LEADING AMERICANS.

Leading American Novelists. By John Erskine. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.75 net.

Leading American Essayists. By William Morton Payne. The same.

These two volumes in the Biographies of Leading Americans do not ask to be taken over-seriously. Dr. Erskine says frankly: "In so far as each biography pronounces any final judgment on the writer, I have tried to render the opinion of the best critics of to-day, rather than my own impression." And Mr. Payne, in his turn, asserts: "In the preparation of the present volume, the author has relied almost wholly upon the work of his predecessors." It would almost seem that the writers have been coached to attempt nothing original, and are putting their work before the public with some nervousness lest a trace of personal bias or conviction may here and there be discoverable. This is not an attitude which can be expected to produce biography of a high order, but it is an excellent working attitude for the bookmaker: We do not know to

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what specific audience this series is addressed, but it is evidently an audience which publisher and editor wish to instruct rather than to reason with; and a process of bookmaking, very good bookmaking, is the result.

It is, perhaps, as well not to question Dr. Erskine's choice of "leading American novelists." A strong emphasis on the word "American" is the key to it. But for their Americanism, and for their interest as landmarks along the relatively obscure trail of American literature, Brockden Brown and Simms would appear to have no reasonable place in a book of this kind. Their works are dead: they have long been no more than material for the literary historian. Mrs. Stowe was a great power, but hardly a great novelist, and Bret Harte was not a novelist at all. We may best take the book as a series of brief biographies of certain American story-writers. Whatever the choice of minor names, Cooper and Hawthorne would still stand head and shoulders above them.

Taken by itself, the chapter on Brown is an interesting study of a man, though it does not make out very much for the author.

> He was not by temperament a novelist; he could neither tell a vital coherent narrative, nor draw a true picture of manners. That he wrote stories at all was due to his need of a medium for his speculations about life, and as Godwin had used the novel effectively to attack domestic tryanny, it was easy for Brown to exploit his psychological notions through the same form.

Godwin was Brown's master and superior, but "Caleb Williams" would scarcely give him place in a group of leading English novelists. Brown's real power, as Dr. Erskine says, lay in his character of publicist. "It is to his credit as a citizen that Brown probably never wrote without the welfare of men, especially of his countrymen, in mind." In short, we are to cherish Brown's memory as a bad novelist, on the ground that he was a good citizen; though his apologist would hardly include him in a study of leading American citizens. The valuable and original portions of this paper, as of the chapter on Simms, are the passages which analyze and criticise the more important works of these half-forgotten novelists.

In the chapter on Cooper, too much space is given to the analysis of books which "every school-boy knows." The résumé of plot is unnecessary, and the criticism, if, as we suppose, the volume is intended for the school-boy, is often over-subtle—as, for example:

> He makes the dim moonlit forest seem to close in upon the human adventure and supplant it; had his temperament been less sane, so much susceptibility would have endowed the northern pinewoods with sylvan deities out of hand.

The chapter on Hawthorne, inevitably the most important in the book, is uncommonly good: here, certainly, Dr. Erskine belies his waiver of critical originality. The analysis of New England Puritanism, and of Hawthorne's interpretation of it in his art and embodiment of it in his nature, is much more than an echo or a variation. He finds the secret of Hawthorne's character and work to be "the subjective habit of Puritanism." . . . "The Puritan vision in him is his only reality, and by comparison the outside world seems to him a thing of phantom and allegory. He is the child of the author of the 'Faerie Queene.'" It is doubtless because of one's interest in the writer's study of Hawthorne's life and character that one feels here especially a certain obstructiveness in the long critical analyses of the romances which so frequently bar the narrative. One notes a little over-severity in the treatment of "The Blithedale Romance"; but its real weakness is fairly explained. This is due, says Dr. Erskine, to the subject itself: "Hawthorne was at home only in the moral world, and only in problems of such gravity as to involve the salvation of a soul. Here there is no sin, no ancient wrong, nothing that connects itself with the idea of retribution."

Mr. Payne's volume is furnished with an introduction of some forty pages which gives not so much a discussion of the essay in America, as a series of Who's-Who-like sketches of the chief American essayists born before 1860. The make-up of the book proper has suffered greatly from the fact that it is one of a series. One must question the editorial policy which excludes Holmes and Lowell from a book of this title, even if one agree with the doubtful premise that the place of either is primarily with the poets. As matters stand, the team of essayists chosen to represent us (to use a vulgar figure) is necessarily small. It would still have been easier, however, after all concession to the poet and novelist, to find four essayists to consort with Irving and Emerson than it was to find four novelists to figure worthily in the same volume with Cooper and Hawthorne. Mr. Payne's style is conscientious rather than animated. He has diligently studied the authorities, and here sets forth, as it were, in a fair round hand, the results of his investigations. The treatment of Thoreau and Curtis seems fresher, largely, no doubt, because they have fallen less frequently into the hands of the minor biographer. Emerson and Irving have figured repeatedly as matter for the short biography of the present type and scale; and Mr. Payne has little or nothing to add to the picture thus afforded. The sketch of Thoreau, on the other hand, is the first, or among the first, of its kind, and very good of its kind. He has the advantage over Dr. Erskine of simplicity, and by dealing less in criticism and more in biography, better fulfils, we suppose, the purpose of the series. Taken by itself, each of these brief "lives" has its sterling qualities.

Ezra Studies. By Charles C. Torrey, Professor of Semitic Languages in Yale University. The University of Chicago Press. $1.50 net.

The Chronicler—the author of Chronicles, Ezra and Nehemiah—is rather an imaginative reconstructor than an historian; he transfers the ideas and usages of his time (the third century B. C.) to the past, and in addition freely embellishes his material. But, as in Chronicles he takes material from Samuel and Kings, it is possible that in Ezra and Nehemiah also he has preserved good historical matter. This is admittedly true in the case of Neh. i-vi, but in regard to the rest of these two books there is difference of opinion among critics. Holding, apparently, that the land was practically depopulated by the Chaldeans (2 Kgs., xxv), he represents the building of the temple and the introduction of the complete ritual law as having been accomplished by the exiles who returned from Babylonia—and this statement is accepted as historical by the majority of critics today. Professor Torrey's volume is a protest against this view. He maintains that the Chronicler was himself the author of the Ezra story (Ezr. vii-x, Neh. vii-xiii), and that his object was not to write history, but to champion the Jewish sacred institutions, especially against the Samaritans, who claimed to have a share in them; therefore, Torrey concludes, "there was no return of exiles, no scribe-potentate Ezra, no law brought from Babylonia, no wholesale expulsion of Gentile wives and children." The larger and more important fact elicited by this treatment of the Chronicler is that the religious development from Deuteronomy to the time of the Roman rule was continuous—the influence of the Dispersion on the Jews of the home-land was broadening and salutary; but "Judaism grew up in Judea, it was not transplanted from foreign soil."

As regards the continuity of the religious development Dr. Torrey's contention must be accepted as correct—it is proved by the great Prophetic writings (parts of the Second Isaiah, etc.), the book of Job, and certain psalms. It is no longer possible to make the exile a dividing fact between a higher and a lower literature. Nor is there conclusive evidence that the later legal development was made in Babylonia. On this point data are lacking. And, it must be added, so far as the growth of Jewish thought is concerned, it is immaterial whether the contributions to it came from Judea or from Babylonia or Egypt.

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The logical and chronological disorder in Ezra and Nehemiah Torrey proposes to remedy by a couple of transpositions and insertions. First, he puts Neh. viii (more precisely vii, 70—viii, 18) between Ezra viii and ix; thus the great movement for putting away foreign wives (Ezr. ix) is explained by the public reading of the law (Neh. viii), which presumably aroused the conscience of the people, and in Neh. ix is followed by a general separation between Israelites and foreigners. This transposition certainly makes the narrative clearer, and it is not difficult to suppose that the original order of sections may have been changed by a scribe. The other revision defended by Professor Torrey is more revolutionary, and has given rise to much discussion: it is to insert after Ezra i a passage (iv, 47b—v, 6) from the apocryphal book known as First Esdras, or Third Ezra, which (after "Darius" has been changed to "Cyrus") gives a detailed account of the provision made by Cyrus for the building of the temple, and thus fits in with the statement of Ezr. iv, 5 that adversaries hindered the building from the time of Cyrus to the time of Darius. Torrey's view, set forth with great skill and learning, is that First Esdras is not an apocryphon, but a fragment of the old Greek translation of Chronicles-Ezra-Nehemiah (a view previously held by Sir Henry Howorth, but elaborated by Torrey). The question does not affect the historical material, since Ezra and First Esdras are virtually identical in historical content. The latter, however, contains the interesting story of the three youths at the court of Darius, a discussion of the question, "What is the strongest thing in the world?" This Torrey properly regards as a popular story inserted by a scribe. Probably there were in circulation different forms of the Ezra story, and one of these is preserved in First Esdras; Torrey is right in holding that the book is not properly an apocryphon.

To the perplexing question as to the genuineness of the royal decrees and certain letters in Ezra (all, except the decree of Cyrus in ch. i and the letter of Artaxerxes in ch. vii, written in Aramaic), Torrey's answer is that they are wholly the invention of the Chronicler. The current opinion is that they are trustworthy documents, though colored by Jewish scribes. It is urged that they are too full of details to be inventions, and that no motive can be assigned for their invention. Torrey replies that such free compositions are found elsewhere in ancient historical writings (in Thucydides and Livy, for example), that they are quite in the Chronicler's manner (see Abijah's speech in 2 Chron. xii, not found in Kings), and that his obvious motive in inserting them was to glorify his nation by representing it as honored by great princes. In view of these facts, the possibility must be admitted that the documents in question are pure inventions. On the other hand, it is equally supposable that they contain real historical facts, good traditions of favors shown by kings (so Artaxerxes was very friendly to Nehemiah), dramatically elaborated and dressed in Jewish language by the imaginative and clever Chronicler. Until we get a better knowledge of this obscure period of Jewish history it is hardly possible to decide between the rival theories. Also there is much to say in favor of the view that the second temple was built by the people who had remained in the land, and not by returned exiles; this point, however, does not affect the final result or the course of the Judean religious development.

In addition to these historical discussions Professor Torrey has done admirable work on the Greek and Aramaic texts involved. He makes it probable that our received Greek translation is that of Theodotion, and shows that the Alexandrian codex is in the main here superior to the Vatican, which is the one generally adopted. He publishes for the first time a part of the Hexaplar text of Nehemiah. He has made a careful study of the Aramaic of the book of Ezra, with comparison of other Aramaic writings of the period. His concluding chapter is a suggestive sketch of the fortunes of the Jews from the deportation to Babylonia down to the time of Nehemiah (586-444 B. C.), and valuable observations are scattered throughout the volume. Whether or not all his results be accepted, it remains true that his scholarly investigations offer a noteworthy contribution to our knowledge of Jewish life in the period under discussion and to the criticism of a considerable part of the later Old Testament writings.

Equal Suffrage: The Results of an Investigation in Colorado made for the Collegiate Equal Suffrage League of New York State. By Helen L. Sumner, Ph.D. New York: Harper & Bros. $2 net.

The subject matter of this volume is accurately indicated in the sub-title. The investigation was undertaken under a stipulation creditable alike to the League and the author, that the inquiry should be prosecuted without bias and with scientific impartiality. With no "formulated conclusions" upon the question of equal suffrage, Dr. Sumner in September, 1906, began fifteen months of field work in Colorado. The investigation proceeded "on the assumption that the answer to the proposition, Shall women vote? is to be found in the good or evil effects of equal suffrage in practice." The methods chiefly employed were, first, the issuance of a rather comprehensive *questionnaire*, which was answered by about twelve hundred out of five thousand persons addressed; secondly, the examination of newspaper files, registration books, and official reports, both State and local; thirdly, the attendance upon nominating conventions and other public political meetings; and, lastly, the frequent interview. The good faith and scientific impartiality of the investigator are undoubted. She has not concealed or minimized evidence adverse to equal suffrage, although she has personally emerged with a conclusion favorable thereto, largely on the grounds that "while the effect on party politics has been slight" (p. 258), the ballot has enlarged women's interest in public affairs and developed "the spirit of comradeship between the sexes" (p. 260).

Two questions suggest themselves after a perusal of the volume: how may Dr. Sumner's significant findings be epitomized; and how far ought these findings to weigh in assuming an attitude upon the whole matter?

As to the first, it may be said that in Colorado, where women have had full suffrage since 1894, about 40 per cent. of the vote cast is cast by women. Their activity in the primaries is very much more limited than at the polls. Over a tenth of the men who answered the *questionnaire* declared that "no women attend" the primaries. Certainly, less than one-fourth of those at primaries throughout the State are women. It appears, too, that political activity among the women is very much more noticeable in the cities and towns than in the rural districts. At nominating conventions a few women delegates frequently appear, although in this rôle, as well as in the rôle of nominee for elective office, women are somewhat less in evidence than when equal suffrage was first tried. In the cities a greater percentage of the women in the better residence districts register and vote than in the slums or cheap tenement-house districts. On the other hand, "prostitutes generally vote, and their vote is cast solidly for the party in control of the police force. This is true not only in Denver, but usually in Pueblo, Cripple Creek, and Trinidad, and often in other cities. . . . Neither is it surprising to learn that the prostitutes vote not only once, but often more than once . . . [for] registration books are most easily and unobtrusively 'padded' . . . in the red-light districts" (p. 84).

So far as the influence of the women voters on politics and the resultant type of government is concerned, it appears incontestable that the party managers have grown chary of nominating "men of notoriously unclean lives and men connected with saloons" (p. 47). "Outside of the question of personal morality and relation to the liquor business . . . women take little interest in the char-

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acter of candidates" (p. 47). Apart from these two points not a dozen of all who testified to the improvement of the character of candidates by reason of equal suffrage "even so much as mentioned the standard of ability, business honesty, and public honor" (p. 48).

Though several women have sat in the Colorado Legislature, no particular preëminence is claimed for legislation passed since 1894 in the interest of women or children. Women's property rights in Colorado had been well secured by law prior to the extension of the suffrage (p. 181). "On the social evil, too, it is impossible to see that equal suffrage has had any effect" (p. 205). On the other hand, in the administration of schools and charities women in increasing numbers have shown marked capacity as public servants. The effect of equal suffrage on the economic status of women in Colorado in the last dozen years "has evidently been slight" (p. 178). The effect of suffrage upon the character of women themselves has been imperceptible. Certain types of women, ambitious and imperious, have, at times, been prominent in politics. They have sometimes not kept aloof from corrupt political practices, such as repeating. On a list of fraudulent registrations, published in 1900 by the chairman of the Arapahoe County Republican Central Committee, there were the names of 3,512 men and 1,772 women (p. 85). Dr. Sumner concedes that "the one direct evil of equal suffrage" is that it imbues some women politicians with the pernicious "tricks of the trade" (p. 258). So far as any net effect has been exercised by equal suffrage upon the care of the home and the children therein, it has been exiguous (p. 250). On the whole, our author is inclined to think equal suffrage has exercised a good influence. It ought to be credited, we are told, with cultivating intelligent public spirit among the majority of women, with enlarging their interests, with developing in many cases public administrative ability of a high order, and with broadening the comradeship between men and women.

How far the crucible of political experiment can avail to solve the issue of equal suffrage is perhaps doubtful. If our author is correct in her contention that "to fully perform, under the existing system, the duties of an enfranchised citizen requires not only an inflexible moral code, but the public spirit, the self-immolation, and the unselfish devotion of a martyr" (p. 258), there will be some who will still incline to argue that so heavy and so universal a "public responsibility should not be laid upon the already overburdened shoulders of mothers." Many a thoughtful citizen will echo the bull that the only weak brother he cares much about is his wife. The Colorado practice of excusing women, though legally liable, from jury service, on the ground that "the duties of a housewife cannot be postponed during her service on a jury" (p. 129), would seem to be in point here. Upon one truth there can hardly fail to be agreement. If men are going to confer political power and responsibility upon women, the men voters would do well first to procure both for themselves. If the conditions of machine politics are such that virtue has gone out of the nominal sovereigns; if even in Colorado, as Dr. Sumner tells us, "equal suffrage . . . serves to show, in the most striking way, the essential rottenness and degrading character of the present [political] system" (p. 96), it should seem almost a worthless gift to convey to women this hollow shell of decayed political power. One is inevitably reminded of the young woman in class meeting who confessed that when she found her jewels were dragging her down to perdition, she gave them to her sister.

Confessions of a Barbarian. By George Sylvester Viereck. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.25 net.

The name of young Mr. Viereck is doubtless known to a good many readers of the *Nation* as author of certain well-advertised poems, not, as we suppose, very widely read, but generally understood to be of rather a shocking character. In the present volume he shows himself proprietor of a prose manner oddly compounded of Shaw, Chesterton, and George Moore. He struts, he sparkles, he belabors; he waves his capital I with happy abandon in the face of a startled world. Like his great original, he disdains not the cart-tail or the drum. Bumptiousness is the god of whom, to take him literally, he is the delighted prophet. "This book," he announces with triumph, "reveals America to herself by interpreting Europe. I stand in symbolic relation, so to speak, to both hemispheres." That is, Mr. Viereck was born in Germany, and entered this country with his teens. The book records a series of impressions evoked by a return to Europe, some dozen years later, as an American. The timeliness of the performance is, he declares, no limitation—for him. The book "is journalism only in the sense in which that term may also be applied to the 'Reisebilder' of Heine. . . . Only those are of all time who, like Rabelais, Cervantes, and Voltaire, are in immediate touch with their own time." Cheered by this reflection, he goes on to state, with much enthusiasm, if less coherence, the upshot of his present work:

> I urge Europe's gospel of tolerance. I lead those who follow me out of the Babylonian captivity of Puritan prejudice. I have been accused of posing, because, in a world of antinomies, I am an inveterate truth-teller. This is my flesh and blood. I could not more frankly denude myself in the sanctity of the Confessional. I speak with the truthfulness of Saint Augustine, of Rousseau, and of George Moore.

Also, we observe, with the impudence of Shaw. . . . Miching mallecho!—let us look out for ourselves. Something a bit "racy" is, no doubt, to be divulged: something connected with the liberality observed by European society in relation to—we know very well what.

Let us hasten to offer our tribute in the form of a confession that certain passages in the book have revolted us not a little. We have been able to encounter without excessive perturbation the not altogether novel theory that matters of sex have nothing to do with morals. But a "tolerance" which permits the poet's fancy to busy itself ardently with the horrors of sexual perversion is a thing to be loathed. The author's command of paradox doubtless enables him to acquit himself on this head. The Kaiser is "logical, because he is illogical." So-and-so is a perfectly healthy man, because he is morbid; and so on. Apart from the passages in question, there is nothing shocking or even surprising in the book. When Mr. Viereck is able to get away from the concerns of sex he is often better than brilliant. The chapters on "The Philosophy of Militarism" and "Inspired Bureaucracy" give a sympathetic interpretation of the German system. His pronouncements on art and life commonly fall too far short of dignity to deserve serious appraisal. There is little to be said for the critic who is pleased with himself for declaring: "We shall never have a full-blooded art until we develop the liaison"; or who, far less tolerably, announces: "I am fully aware that all art is a form of exhibitionism."

A History of Mediæval Political Theory in the West. By R. W. Carlyle and A. J. Carlyle. Vol. II: The Political Theory of the Roman Lawyers and the Canonists, from the Tenth Century to the Thirteenth Century, by A. J. Carlyle. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50 net.

The second volume of this painstaking work is devoted to an analysis of the legal and political conceptions of the civilians and the canonists belonging to the period under review. In Part i certain mediæval manuals of Roman law (the "Brachylogus" and "Petri Exceptiones") are referred to, and then the views of jurists of the Bologna school are given, Irnerius, Placentinus, Azo, Accursius—a mention of whose dates might assist the non-specialist reader. Mr. Carlyle discusses the significance of definitions of *æquitas*, *jus*, and *justitia*, which these *Glossators* borrowed or adapted from Justinian's Digest; then their theory of the *jus naturale*, and of slavery which existed in apparent opposition to its mandates.

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Next their ideas as to the source of political authority are discursively presented, and their views are set forth upon the mutual relations and respective prerogatives of the ecclesiastical and secular governments and courts.

Part ii adds a somewhat lengthier and more suggestive treatment of like matters by the Canonists—their theory of law in general, of natural law, of slavery, property, of secular authority, of the nature and character of canon law, and of the relations between Church and State. In this part of his volume Mr. Carlyle emphasizes two points: The first is, that with the Canonists, Scripture, and the *jus naturale* so closely related to Scriptural precepts, contain the peremptory law of God, and that every contravening ordainment, whether emanating from a secular or an ecclesiastical source, is void—Constitutiones ergo vel ecclesiasticæ vel seculares, si naturali jure contrariæ probantur, penitus sunt excludendæ. According to this view, which is Gratian's,

> The canons of the church belong to the same category as the civil law of the state; they do not represent an absolutely final authority, but are rather the expression of the authority residing in the church and its proper officers for the government of the society, subject always to the authority which lies behind the society. But they are binding upon all the members of the society; to refuse to obey them is to refuse to recognize the authority of God, from whom this authority is derived (p. 177).

Such an exposition makes evident how many things that view left open to dispute!

The second point is perhaps more novel, and, so far as sound, of much importance to students of the relations between mediæval kings or emperors and the papacy. The author says:

> It is necessary to distinguish carefully between incidental and sometimes hasty sayings, made under the stress of some great controversy, and judgments expressed in legal and other works which were compiled in cold blood and represent reasoned and considered conclusions (p. 93).

He then proceeds to show that the statements which were embodied in authoritative compilations of canon law, regarding the supremacy of the papal church over rulers and states, and touching the sinful nature of secular power, were considerably less extreme than the language used, for example, by a Hildebrand (before or after he became Gregory VII), or by a Boniface VIII, whose utterances the authors of this work expect to discuss in a later volume. In the meanwhile, the conclusion is thus stated:

> And finally, we think that an examination of the subject will have made it clear that while the church had come to claim a tremendous authority in relation to the empire, it is not the case that the church as represented in the deliberate judgments of the canon law claimed to be supreme over the state. The normal doctrine of the canon law down to the time of the Decretals [of Gregory IX, completed in 1234] is the same as that of the fifth and the ninth centuries, that the two authorities, the ecclesiastical and the civil, were equally and separately derived from Christ, and that strictly each was supreme in its own sphere (p. 254).

As the present volume sets forth but the first part of the argument of our authors, it would be premature to offer a decision—at least one adverse to their contention. Yet if the matter were to be judged on the evidence given in this volume, we should say that a good deal of stress is laid upon the omission of extreme pretensions from certain papal documents, and a disclaimer is inferred from their silence, where there was no call to speak. Moreover, the authors' position seem to counter the conclusions, or generalizations, of Dr. Otto Gierke's "Deutsche Genossenschaftsrecht," a section of which was translated by the late Frederic William Maitland, and made by him into that wonderful little book (*multum in parvo!*) entitled "Political Theories of the Middle Age." Pages 11 to 16 of the Maitland-Gierke book, with the corresponding notes (9 to 39), bear on this matter.

In conclusion, a reviewer's duty to the craft of book-making compels a disapproval of the way in which the preface, and to some extent the "Texts of Authorities referred to in Volume II," give a list, meagre enough, of modern works without stating the dates of their publication. And we must remark that the awkward language (style we cannot call it) of the author not infrequently retards the reader's apprehension of his meaning.

Notes.

Theodore Roosevelt's book about his African trip, which will be published by the Scribners in August, will contain some material which has not yet appeared in magazine form. The book will be a large octavo of about 500 pages.

Houghton Mifflin Co. publishes this week "An American Citizen: The Life of William H. Baldwin, jr.," by John Graham Brooks.

A volume of essays on English language and literature, by members of the English Association, is announced for publication next autumn by the Clarendon Press. The editor will be A. C. Bradley; the contributors will be Dr. Henry Bradley, Robert Bridges, Prof. W. P. Ker, Dr. George Neilson, Prof. George Saintsbury, Miss Edith Sichel, and Prof. C. E. Vaughan.

A correspondent informs us that the late Goldwin Smith left upon his death a volume of "Recollections," ready for the press. These will make a work of about the size of Mr. Smith's "United States."

A selection of poems from the manuscripts which the late Father Tabb left is announced for publication next week by Mitchell Kennerley.

Publication of a volume of speeches of the late Samuel L. Clemens (Mark Twain) is announced by Harper & Brothers. The book will cover some forty years of his life, and will appear late this month.

The Putnams announce for immediate publication "The Real Roosevelt," a volume of selections from his speeches, arranged by Alan Warner; "The Government Ownership of Railways," by Judge A. Von Wagenen; and "The Commercial Power of Congress Considered in the Light of Its Origin," by David Walter Brown.

Henry Frowde announces for early publication "The Oxford Book of Italian Verse, XIIIth Century—XIXth Century," chosen by St. John Lucas; "Wood-Carvings in English Churches. I, Misericords," by Francis Bond"; "Selections from the Latin Literature of the Early Empire," edited by A. C. B. Brown; and "Gesenius's Hebrew Grammar," as edited and enlarged by E. Kautzsch, and translated by A. E. Cowley.

Henry Holt & Co. announce the addition to their foreign language texts this month of three volumes: "La Barraca," by Ibañez, edited by R. H. Keniston; Ludwig's "Der Erbförster," edited by Morton Stewart; and a new edition, with vocabulary, of Heyse's "Anfang und Ende," edited by Professor McLouth.

A comprehensive summary of "The Iron Ore Resources of the World," which has been compiled under the auspices of the executive committee of the eleventh International Geological Congress, and edited by J. G. Anderson, general secretary of the congress, is now nearly ready, according to an announcement of the publishers. The volume may be had from Lemcke & Buechner of New York.

In the *Geographical Journal* for June, Dr. T. G. Longstaff gives an account of his recent explorations in an unsurveyed part of the Himalayas. The most important geographical results were the fixing the exact position of the greatest watershed in Asia—that which divides the rivers flowing to Central Asia from those which flow to India—and the discovery of a peak which may prove to exceed Mount Everest in height. His rough observations made it about 30,000 feet. An American traveller, Hamilton Rice, in describing two trips on a South American river, the Uapés, in Colombia and Brazil, gives most interesting facts in regard to the life of the Indians living on its shores. Attention is directed by Prof. J. W. Gregory to the undeveloped wealth of northern Australia, and its fitness for colonization by white races. It has large tracts of fertile land, considerable mineral deposits, and a wonderful stock-raising capacity, while its magnificent harbor, Port Darwin, is only six days' voyage from the great markets of Southern China.

"La Transhumance," or the migration of sheep between their summer and winter pastures, according to A. Fribourg in the *Annales de Géographie* for May, has exerted a profound influence on Spain for a thousand years. Up to recent times they traversed the country in every direction by regularly prescribed routes in herds 10,000 strong, led by a *mayoral*. In 1347

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the owners formed a union called La Mesta, which obtained from the government certain privileges, especially that of feeding their flocks in the lands adjacent to these routes. Consequently, in extensive regions agriculture became impossible, forests disappeared, and a large part of Castile was turned into an arid desert. This privilege was taken away in 1837, and now the railways take the larger part of the "transhumants." In this number attention is called to the opening in April of the railway connecting the capital of the Chinese province of Yun-nan with the sea at Haiphong, Tonkin, thereby shortening a journey of a month to two days and bringing within reach of the markets of the world a region rich in deposits of coal, copper, and tin. And interesting facts are given as to the great increase at the present time of the rubber cultivation in the Federated Malay States. There are now plantations of about 200,000 acres, with between forty and fifty million trees cared for by 80,000 coolies.

The Prix Delalande-Guérineau, which is at the disposal of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres has been divided in two parts and awarded to George Doutrepont, author of "La Littérature française à la cour du Duc de Bourgogne," and René Sturel, author of "Jacques Amyot, traducteur de Plutarque." Of the Prix Santour, which has been divided in several portions, the larger shares have been awarded to M. Masqueray, for his 'Euripide et ses idées," and to Paul Vilatte for his "Apologie d'Apulée."

Those who have graduated from bridge to auction bridge, or are contemplating that promotion, will find help in a volume on the game, with cases and decisions by the committee of the Portland Club, reviewed and explained by "Badsworth." The book is published by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Duffield & Co. have added two volumes to their complete edition of the writings of Fiona Macleod (William Sharp), brought out under the supervision of Mrs. William Sharp. The present instalment embraces the stories collected under four titles: "The Dominion of Dreams" and "Under the Dark Stars," "The Sin Eater" and "The Washer of the Ford." Mr. Sharp had before his death set about a revision and rearrangement of his works, and the changes, including some rather drastic omissions, now introduced, are in accordance with his express directions. The volume of "The Sin Eater" contains the interesting introductory letter written to George Meredith from Iona, in which Mr. Sharp sets forth his notion of the Gaelic spirit, and the part it is destined to play in English literature of the future. On the whole, the contents of these two volumes are rather further removed than were those of the first volume, "Pharais and the Mountain Lovers," from the ordinary passions and imaginations of mankind, and strike us as less successful artistically. They are, however, a rare addition to letters.

We wish the word "lost" might have been omitted from the title of Horatio S. Krans's "Lost Art of Conversation" (Sturgis & Walton), for the contents of the book nowhere take so desperate a view of the art. The editor, to be sure, says in his introduction: "The assertions that present-day conversation has sunk far below the high levels of the talk of the past; that our conversational performances are flat, thin, and poor; and the even more sweeping assertion that conversation is indeed a lost art—these are commonplaces that pass unchallenged, and can hardly be gainsaid." The book is made up of essays on conversation by Bacon, Swift, De Quincey, Mahaffy, Hazlitt, and Stevenson. It would hardly be maintained that conversation has become a lost art since the day of Hazlitt and De Quincey. The latter, in the essay here published, plainly treats conversation as an art still in its infancy. It had, he argues, hitherto lacked the regulation of which other arts had the advantage:

> A corresponding change will gradually take place in the usages which regulate conversation. It will come to be considered an infringement of the general rights for any man to detain the conversation, or arrest its movement, for more than a short space of time—which gradually will be more and more defined. This one curtailment of arrogant pretensions will lead to others.

In the preface to his treatise on "The Principles of the Art of Conversation," Professor Mahaffy states it as one of his qualifications that he lives "in a country where the practice of it is confessedly on a high level, and where the average man is able to talk well." Clearly, it does not occur to him that it may be a dead art of which he is about to discourse. Hazlitt, in the papers here reprinted, speaks of conversation as if it were a stable thing in all ages, chiefly varying in quality in accordance with the classification of the speaker—author, lord, or what not. And in the three essays by Stevenson, which bring the volume to a close, there is no suggestion that the art of conversation (a phrase which, to be sure, he does not use) is obsolete or obsolescent. But the title of the collection is less important than the essays themselves. Mr. Krans has supplied a good text, and in his introduction has a few appropriate comments to make upon a somewhat casually assembled group.

The career of "Edward Bulwer, First Baron Lytton of Knebworth," has many of the elements that go to make an interesting book, and these have not been neglected by T. H. S. Escott in the volume now published by E. P. Dutton & Co. Bulwer's novels, if publishers' figures are a proof, have by no means lost their favor with the larger public, but they are probably little read by those to whom a solid biographical study like this of Mr. Escott's would naturally appeal. Toward the close of Bulwer's literary career Routledge (the London publisher of the present biography) paid £20,000 for a ten years' right of producing nineteen of his novels in cheap form; and the venture was a success. Such a transaction we can understand, but it is not so easy to-day to put one's self in the place of an intelligent critic like Plumer Ward, who said of Bulwer: "He is the most accomplished writer of the most accomplished era in English letters, practising all classes and styles of composition, novelist, dramatist, poet, historian, moral philosopher, essayist, critic, political pamphleteer—in each superior to all others, and only rivalled in each by himself." Critical readers of a younger generation are, on the contrary, too likely to forget the large amount of genuine entertainment his books provide, and to overlook the fact that, with all the melodrama and despite the cheapness of tone that mars so much of his work, the pages of "My Novel" and its companions are packed with the shrewdest remarks on politics and life in general.

In his biography Mr. Escott gives a full account of Bulwer's political career, with a sufficient number of anecdotes. Perhaps the most entertaining of these is the remark of Disraeli when at Bulwer's house he was asked to take Mrs. Wyndham Lewis down to dinner. "Oh," was the answer of Mrs. Lewis's future devoted husband, "anything rather than that insufferable woman. But Allah is great." The political careers of Bulwer and Disraeli were not without resemblances, but their matrimonial ventures were sufficiently diverse. Mr. Escott naturally, and no doubt purposely, takes the part of Bulwer in the long disease he called his marriage. Perhaps, however, the character of Bulwer on this side was not fairly presented without some specimens of the superlatively foolish letters to his wife, which Mr. Escott virtually ignores. The most interesting part of the book is that which gives the youthful years of Bulwer with their broken education and melodramatic passions. The child in this case was truly father of the novelist.

The University of Berlin, in a congratulatory letter on the fiftieth anniversary of the late Prof. Philip Schaff's career as a teacher, pronounced his "History of the Christian Church" "the most notable monument of universal historical learning produced by the school of Neander." Dr. Schaff did not live to complete the work, and it was left for his son, David S. Schaff, professor of church history in the Western Theological Seminary of Pittsburgh, to treat the period from 1050 to 1517. This filial duty he has now performed, a former volume, published in 1907, having covered the period to 1294, and the present volume (V, Part ii; Scribner) bringing the narrative to the opening of the German Reformation. The son has written in the manner of the father. There is the same wealth of fact, the same caution of opinion, the same mild Protestant prejudice, the same graphic characterization of periods and persons with parallels from all ages. The historian is still of the "school of Neander," not of the modern scientific historians. One does not find new judgments of men or movements, based on newly discovered documents or new interpretations of the sources, but there is always wise selection of the best judgments wrought by others. The period treated is that of the decline and corruption of the papacy, the reformatory councils, the great mystics, the early reformers, and the Renaissance. The bibliographical references are full and valuable, the volume has a good index, and is published in the style of the series to which it belongs.

In the New International Year Book for 1909 (Dodd, Mead & Co.) we find a work adapted to the uses of the newspaper office as well as the general reference library. It is a bulky volume of nearly 800 quarto pages, and it makes good use of its generous elbow room of nearly a million words. An exception, however, is the article on Polar Research, which, in view of the dramatic and essential importance of the facts it has to record, might easily have been two or three times as long. We still find the most

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valuable single feature in the historical summaries for the year accompanying the articles on the States and foreign countries. If only vigorous precautions be taken against error, these summaries are bound to grow more valuable from year to year, and the file of the International Year Book will serve the historian as appreciably as the long chain of Appleton's Annuals now extinct. Specialized tables like those given under Necrology and under Gifts and Bequests are particularly useful.

Winthrop Packard, in his "Woodland Paths" (Small, Maynard & Co.), describes the oncoming of spring with the trying imperturbability of the professional nature lover. He sees muskrats and crows fighting for their lady loves, dates you the returning birds by the calendar, greets the moths and butterflies by their Latin names. All this he does with a certain whimsicality and humor, but the stride of his fancy is pretty short, and the little book contains long, tedious passages to all who are not enthralled at the budding of simple primroses or the antics of "Grapta interrogationis." But, of course, the book is intended for the devout observer of times and seasons. For him it even provides several pages of index well stuffed with birds, beasts, insects, trees, herbs, and flowers. The uninitiated, if, indeed, any one has escaped the teaching of the "how-to-know" books, will find more to their purpose a capital sketch about the manly art of bobbing for eels, or an amusing characterization of grotesque young night-herons unadvisedly adopted as pets. There is a tang to these things that we miss when the author muses on clouds and butterflies. He conveys an enormous deal of nature, to be sure, but usually with rather slight personal contribution of imagination. Six pen drawings, by Charles Copeland, have a pleasing old-fashioned quality. To all appearances they might have come out of the portfolio of some patriarch of the Hudson River School.

The last publication of the Pali Society is a volume by Mrs. Rhys Davids, entitled "Psalms of the Sisters" (Henry Frowde), being verses attributed, in the tradition of the Pali Canon to certain eminent sisters (Theri-Bhikkhunīs) of the Buddhist Order, and forming the second and smaller portion of the work known as Thera-therī-gāthā (*i. e.*, verses of the Elders, Brethren, and Sisters), which was first committed to writing in 80 B. C. In her labors as a translator, Mrs. Rhys Davids has derived great assistance from the Commentary of Dhammapāla of Kāñcipura, and it is because the MSS. of the first part of this work—that on the Thera-gāthā, or psalms of the Brothers—are less numerous and harder to obtain than those on the Therī-gāthā, not from any wish to invert the ancient order, that this, the latter division, has been put into English earlier. While no one, not even the pious Buddhist, any longer believes that these poems contain the actual words of the women to whom they are ascribed, or that the Bhikkhunīs in question conversed in Pali slokas, they are none the less valuable as registering for us the thoughts and aspirations which large congregations of believers have for centuries ascribed to saintly builders-up of certain ideals, and as forming part of a literature which has for so long a period been revered as holy writ. Allowing for variations in the history and temperament of the heroine, the theme of these poems is everywhere the same. It is the thanksgiving of the enlightened, the joyous utterances of one who "having made a resolve (to escape the round of rebirths) under former Buddhas, and heaped up merit in this and that state of becoming," has under this Buddha dispensation severed herself from earthly ties, has overcome all unholy desires, and, having attained to "thorough knowledge of the Norm in form and meaning," has Nirvāna already within her grasp. Mrs. Rhys Davids's rendering is masterly—in places it reflects what seems to be very fine poetry—and her notes and introduction sustain her high reputation as a scholar.

"En Haïti" (A. Colin, 380 pages, 32 phototypes, 2 maps, 5 francs), by Eugène Aubin, is the well-written description of present-day Hayti by an experienced traveller who had eighteen months' close observation in the interior of that not easily accessible island. To this the author joins a minute knowledge of the colonial history; and he writes with the personal photographic sprightliness of French correspondents. Landscapes, fêtes, Voodoo worship, the manner of common life, are vividly and authentically portrayed.

"Les Finances des cités grecques" (H. Champion, 315 pages, 7 francs), by Henri Francotte, professor in the University of Liège, is a collection of learned studies which show agreeably that Greek cities, quite like our own, were not without their money worries. The taxes of the autonomous cities are first explained, including separately the *Eisphora* at Athens; next, subject or allied cities; then financial administration as organized, and in its history from Pericles and the Peloponnesian war down to the third century B. C., with a special chapter on the finances of the temple at Delphi; a few pages of conclusions regarding the effect of finances on Greek history; and a good index of proper names, subjects, and Greek words.

Thomas Hitchcock, journalist, died on Monday in New York city, aged seventy-nine years. He contributed social and financial articles to the *Sun* for many years, signing himself "Matthew Marshall," and was author of one book, "Unhappy Loves of Men of Genius."

John Austin Stevens, founder and sometime editor of the *Magazine of American History*, died at Newport, R. I., last week, aged eighty-three years. Mr. Stevens was graduated from Harvard in the class of 1846. He was active in public affairs at the time of the civil war, and was elected secretary of the Chamber of Commerce in 1862. While in this office he had charge of publication of the colonial records of the chamber, and was, some years afterward, elected librarian of the New York Historical Society. Always interested in the affairs of patriotic societies, he founded, in 1876, the order of the Sons of the Revolution, and one year later the *Magazine of American History*, which he continued to edit until 1882. Mr. Stevens wrote much on the colonial and Revolutionary history of this country. His principal works are "Memoirs of George Gibbs, Librarian," "Progress of New York in a Century," "The Burgoyne Campaign," "The Expedition of Lafayette Against Arnold," "The French in Rhode Island," "Memoirs of William Kelby, Librarian," "New York City in the Nineteenth Century," and the "Life of Albert Gallatin."

Sir William Butler, writer of many books of travel and adventure, died last week in Ireland, aged seventy-two years. His writings, which enjoyed great popularity among English readers, were a history of the Sixty-ninth Regiment, "The Great Lone Land," "The Wild North Land," "Red Cloud, the Solitary Sioux." "Far Out," "Akim-Foo, the History of a Failure," "Life of Gordon," "Life of Sir Charles Napier," "The Life of Sir George Pomeroy-Colley," "From Naboth's Vineyard," and "The Light of the West."

Julius Wolff, the popular poet of the school of Victor Scheffel, died recently in Charlottenburg, at the age of seventy-two. He wrote many military poems, besides his lyrical verses. Among his works are the "Rattenfänger," "Till Eulenspiegel Redivivus," "Wilder Jäger," "Der Raubgraf," "Das Recht der Hagestolze," and "Die Hohkönigsburg."

Georg, Freiherr von Oertzen, died recently in Freiburg im Breisgau. He wrote extensively, but was best known for his poems and satires, some of which are "Aus Kämpfen des Lebens," "Deutsche Träume, Deutsche Siege," "Lieder und Leute," and "Zwischen Runen und Rosen."

Science.

Rara Arithmetica: A catalogue of the arithmetics written before the year MDCI, with a description of those in the library of George Arthur Plimpton of New York. By David Eugene Smith of Teachers College, Columbia University. Boston: Ginn & Co. $5.50 net.

The collection of fifteenth and sixteenth century arithmetics owned by George A. Plimpton of New York is the largest of its kind ever made, not excepting the famous private libraries once owned in Italy by Libri and Prince Boncompagni. Professor Smith has made a genuine contribution to the history of science by cataloguing and describing the books in this collection, stating briefly their contents, and adding a list of other arithmetics published before 1601. Altogether 550 different works are mentioned, which aggregate to about 1,200 books, if all the editions are included in the count. Besides this, a large number of manuscripts on arithmetic are catalogued and described. It is the most complete bibliography of early arithmetics yet attempted.

The volume as a whole is a remarkably fine example of the modern art of book manufacture. There are nine plates, illustrating certain interesting parts of manuscripts and books. Moreover, the title pages of the more prominent texts are reproduced by photography, as are also many pages illustrating the notation and the methods of computation in use during the Renaissance.

Not only is this publication of inter-

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est to teachers and lovers of old books, but it contains material which will be of marked service to the historian. Thus, a book of 1483 contains a passage believed to be the first reference to a slate. The rhyme beginning "Thirty days hath September" is given in Latin as early as 1488. A very close approach to the invention of decimal fractions, which are usually attributed to Stevin (1585), occurs in a book dated 1492. There appears in photographic reproduction the finger symbolism for numbers, published by Paciuolo in 1494. Pascal's arithmetical triangle, so-called, is shown in an engraving made a century before Pascal. One photograph exhibits symbols which may throw some light on the disputed origin of the dollar symbol, $.

The reader may, at times, wish that Professor Smith had given a still greater variety of arithmetical detail, even if some facsimile illustrations of title pages had been forced out in consequence. Bibliographically the title page may seem the most important page of a book for facsimile reproduction, but historically the case may be quite different. We have looked in vain, in this volume, for an illustration of the old "scratch method" of extracting square and cube roots. Professor Smith examined the mathematical works of Maurolycus, but, by confining his attention to elementary matters, he missed the capital discovery that in this book occurs for the first time (so far as now known) the method of "mathematical induction," a method of vital interest, which has been variously attributed to such later writers as Kaestner, Jacob Bernoulli, Fermat, and Pascal. No doubt many such points will be brought out in a work on the history of arithmetic during the Renaissance, which Professor Smith has now in preparation.

Wilhelm Ostwald reiterates in the introduction to his new work, "Die Entwicklung der Elektrochemie" (Leipzig: J. A. Barth), his theory that "the history of the sciences offers the best and most authoritative material for the study of law in the evolution of mankind." The history of science, as Professor Ostwald sees it, is not merely history for history's sake, but a new method of study, a new way of getting at the results of research. The nineteenth century was too full of creative work in the various fields of science to give historical studies their full play. The new century, on the other hand, though it has achieved already some very remarkable results in the way of positive additions to our knowledge of the forces of nature, will offer a larger field for historical studies, for the reason that the practical value of such studies will be more clearly demonstrated. The author deprecates the idea that pure science can have no connection with life. The great investigators, he says, "were almost without exception in their younger days passionately enthusiastic over some concrete, practical aim, and it was in the course of the further and higher development of these problems (which indeed followed rapidly one upon the other) that they themselves attained a wider and higher point of view. The tree of knowledge raises its crown high in the ether of pure science, but it is rooted in the firm ground of human needs and activities." Electrochemistry is particularly adapted to the subject of historical study in this sense. Its history is not yet more than a century old, and it has received a powerful impetus from men still living. Its documents are all easily available, and require no special linguistic or diplomatic criticism in order to be unearthed and interpreted. Furthermore, its technical importance is evenly balanced with its scientific. In an interesting paragraph the author sets up against each other the great books, works of men of genius, and the text-book writers who usually are men of moderate stature. We find, he says, so much in the original works of the great scientists that has not become part and parcel of the text-book literature. The selective work of the text-book writer is the result of his deliberate judgment, and the mere fact that he has profited by the advance of science does not necessarily give him the requisite critical faculty. He acts as a sieve which retains the wheat but lets the gold sand slip out.

"La Vie du language" (A. Colin, 310 pages, 3.50 francs), by Albert Dauzat, reasons very readably about the various evolutions of sounds and words, the psychological and social phenomena with which they are connected, and their literary influences. The book goes from phonetics, Greek and Roman formations, the "noble" style, to popular reactions. One of the latest of these was the Parisian common people's effort to pronounce Wilbur Wright, resulting in "vilburétt" which they promptly turned to "vieille burette" (old oil-feeder).

The Janssen gold medal has been awarded by the Académie des Sciences to W. W. Campbell, director of the Lick Observatory, in California. The Prix Boudin, of 3,000 francs, goes to I. G. Chauveaud, for the "Etudes sur les tissus des plantes vasculaires"; the Prix Hébert to Professor Barbillon of Grenoble, for his works on electricity; and the Prix Lalande to Messrs. Cowell and Crommelin for their work on Halley's comet.

Drama and Music.

"Glass Houses" is the title finally chosen for the adaptation of the "Connais-toi" of Paul Hervieu, made by Kenneth Barnes, and recently produced in the London Globe Theatre with a fair measure of success.

Robert Arthur's revival of the Robertsonian Comedies at the London Coronet Theatre has begun, apparently very successfully. The first piece, "M. P.," had a most cordial reception and seems to have been well acted.

Cyril Maude, the well-known English comedian, is to try his hand at Rip Van Winkle. He is a player of intelligence, humor, and delicacy, and therefore has some obvious qualifications for the undertaking. An entirely new stage version of Irving's tale will be made for him—by Austin Strong—in which special stress will be laid upon the preternatural scenes in the Catskills. There certainly ought to be no difficulty in making a better play than the bit of dramatic patchwork employed by Jefferson, but Jefferson's Rip himself was a creation which is not likely to be equalled, let alone improved upon.

Lewis Waller will make his first appearance here in September in "Henry V." His impersonation of that gallant monarch is said to be full of nobility and eloquence. Old playgoers will remember the popularity which George Rignold won in the part thirty-five years ago. Richard Mansfield, an actor of higher degree, was far less successful in it. Mr. Waller will bring several other plays with him.

The revival of Henry Arthur Jones's comedy, "The Case of Rebellious Susan," at the London Criterion Theatre seems to have been a decided success. Sir Charles Wyndham is once more seen at his best as Sir Richard Kato, Mr. Bishop is as richly humorous as ever as the old Admiral, while Miss Mary Moore resumes her old part of Lady Susan Harrabin with all the old effect.

Owing to the demand from many parts of Great Britain, the colonies, and America, from persons who were unable to witness the annual Shakespeare birthday celebrations, it has been decided to hold a summer festival at Stratford-upon-Avon of three weeks from July 25 to August 13. Mr. and Mrs. F. R. Benson and their Shakespearean company will present many of the plays of Shakespeare, several being given in the open air. "The Piper," the prize play by Josephine Preston Peabody, will be produced on Wednesday, July 27, its original production having been postponed owing to the death of King Edward. Miss Marion Terry has been engaged for the part of Veronika. The festival programme will also include concerts—arranged by Mr. and Mrs. Albert Mallinson—Morris dances, country dances, folk songs, and old English games.

The Irish Abbey Theatre Company has been drawing good audiences and attracting much favorable critical attention at the London Court Theatre, but some of their pieces are puzzling even to the most ardent admirers. They show a tendency to drift toward the merely extravagant or grotesque—a common weakness of such organizations. In their plays of peasant life they are almost always delightful, but in their more ambitious efforts they are less happy. The scene of one of their latest productions—"The Glittering Gate," by Lord Dunsany—is laid in hell, whence two burglars, one killed during a robbery and the other hanged, break into heaven; only to find it empty space. Another play, "Harvest," by S. L. Robinson, purporting to be a study of the effects of a bad system of education upon a particular family, seems to be too extravagant, depressing, and illogical, to be valuable either as entertainment or suggestion. "The Eloquent Dempsey," by William Boyle, a study of modern municipal politics, in which the hero strives to be all things to all men and is finally repudiated by everybody, is described as an amusing piece, full of native humor, but somewhat deficient in variety and action. "The Image," a three-act comedy, by Lady

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Gregory, relates to the determination of a group of village gossips to devote certain money to be raised by the sale of two whales, to the erection of an image. While they are debating the matter, one whale is appropriated by rivals, and the other washed away. The plot is the thinnest thing in the world, but the characterization is said to be admirable.

The French minister of public instruction and of fine arts has submitted to the President of the republic for signature a decree by virtue of which the "reading committee" of the Comédie Française, which was abolished in 1901, is to be re-established. For the last nine years the power of accepting or rejecting new plays has been vested in the director of the theatre. The committee is to consist of ten regular members and two deputy members, who will consider new plays under the presidency of the director. The ten regular members are to comprise the six members of the managing committee of the theatre, together with two *sociétaires* elected by the general body of their fellows, and the two senior female members of the society. It is provided that at least seven members, in addition to the president, must be present at meetings of the committee. New plays are to be read either by the author himself or by his representative, or by a member of the committee in the presence of the author, if he desires to attend. The committee will express its views by ballot, and the president will have a casting vote. The abolition of the reading committee constituted one of the grievances which M. le Bargy alleged as a reason for his resignation from the Comédie Française.

"Le Drame en France au XVIIIe siècle" (A. Colin, 600 pages, 12 plates, 10 francs), by F. Gaiffe, *docteur ès lettres*, is a very complete study of an important subject in the history of French literature. It begins from the decadence and transformation of tragedy and comedy in the eighteenth century; the influence of foreign literatures, and the social origins of the "Drame"—a new *genre* created by the philosophic party to soften and moralize *bourgeoisie* and people by presenting to them touching scenes from their own adventures. The second part takes up in chronological order the history of this dramatic *genre*, from the "Fils naturel" (1757) and Diderot as leader of a school to the transformation of the Comédie Italienne and the proclamation of the liberty of theatres in 1791. The third part studies the matter of the "Drame"—its philosophic and moral ideas; characters, portrayal of sentiment, sensibility (that eighteenth century discovery); its scenes of contemporary society, historical truth, and local color. The fourth and last part deals with the form of the "Drame"—its classic rules, romance, and mingled tones; the verse, language, and style; the representation, declamation, pantomime, costumes, and stage decoration, and a summing up of its influence on melodrama which sprang from it, and its success in foreign countries; its connection with romantic drama and modern comedy, and four complete indexes.

William R. Chapman announces that the next Maine Music Festival will open in Bangor on October 6 and close at Portland six days later. The list of soloists includes Alma Gluck, Marie Rappold, Estelle Harriss, Mary Desmond, Pearl Benedict, Luigi Samolli, besides Cecil Fanning who sang also at last year's festival. The programmes will be made up largely of excerpts from operas—"Lohengrin," "Samson and Dalila," "Carmen," "Mefistofele," "Queen of Sheba."

Italy's leading opera house, the Scala of Milan, kept its doors open the past season considerably longer than usual. Formerly the season always ended with the carnival; this time it extended even beyond Easter day, the object being to reduce the deficit, which in the previous operatic year had been 270,000 francs. This sum was reduced to 100,000 francs by the extra spring performances. The outlook for the future is encouraging, as the city fathers have voted to increase their annual contribution from 60,000 francs to 150,000, for a period of eight years. The chief difficulty is the scarcity of singers, as the best continue to migrate to North and South America, where salaries are high. First-class conductors also are becoming scarce, the music-lovers of Milan mourn the loss of Vitali, who has gone to Buenos Ayres. The number of performances given during the past season at the Scala was seventy-two. Only eight operas were included in the repertory. "La Damnation de Faust" led with 15 representations, followed by "Sonnambula" with 13, "Walküre" 12, "Medea" 11, "Samson and Dalila" 8, "L'Africaine" 8, "Rhea" 3. Two performances were also given of "Margarete," a new opera by Alfred Brüggemann, whose music suggests, it is said, the influence of Puccini, Strauss, and Debussy.

Art.

A Catalogue Raisonné of the Works of the Most Eminent Dutch, Flemish, and French Painters, Etc. By John Smith. Eight volumes and supplement: A textual reprint of the original edition, imported by E. P. Dutton & Co. $25 net.

In the year 1839, John Smith, picture dealer of London, published tentatively with one of the longest title-pages on record the first volume of this remarkable catalogue. Its usefulness was apparent, and volume succeeded volume until the series was concluded by a supplement, in 1842. His aim was to include only important artists and paintings of a certain consequence. His taste was that of his time. Systematically he disregarded all Dutch painters before Rembrandt, and all Flemish painters before Rubens. Of the French school only three French masters seemed worthy of record, Poussin, Claude, and Greuze. Within his chosen limits his diligence was extraordinary. He consulted thoroughly the sales catalogues of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, thus catching many pictures before the dispersion of the old galleries. He travelled much, and watched closely the greatest picture market of the world, London. So faithful was his search that even now, after seventy years, of the artists whom he treats only one work out of five, on a rough average, escaped his notice.

We have said his taste was limited. Frans Hals did not seem an artist important enough to be fully listed. Vermeer of Delft makes a bare appearance as an imitator of De Hooghe and as a painter of street scenes. Several of the signed works of this incomparable artist are set down to the mediocre Eglon van der Neer. To do Smith justice, Vermeer impressed him; considering the scarcity of works by this painter, he writes: "It is quite inexplicable how he attained the excellence many of them exhibit." Yes, Smith's taste was pretty restricted, but a narrow taste may be remarkable within its range. Smith's was that. His observations on the quality of the Dutch little masters are as keen as they are unpretentious. It would be an interesting exercise to note the many instances in which he has anticipated the criticisms of Taine and Fromentin. He was not merely an excellent connoisseur, but an enthusiast; and it still is a comforting thing to dealer or collector to be able to identify a favorite picture as "Smith, No. —," and to quote a word of praise. He came upon the end of an exclusive enthusiasm. Before his catalogue was finished a little book, called "Modern Painters," by a "Graduate of Oxford," had, though no one knew it, announced a new period of taste. Still, the half-gods with whom Smith chiefly dealt survived the coming of the primitive gods, and his work is still valuable enough amply to justify this handsome reprint. Not that the catalogue is ideal. Smith himself frankly admitted its limitations. Frequently, the measurements are only approximate. Sometimes the ambiguous "right" and "left," that bugbear of cataloguers, makes trouble. Signatures are neither facsimiled nor located on the pictures. But with all its faults it remains the completest census we have of a national school.

The reissuing of a standard work of reference of this sort is always something of a poser for a publisher. He is under pressure to revise it and bring it up to date. Unquestionably, if a connoisseur of, say, Dr. Bode's competence would give us a revised and enlarged Smith, tracing the fates of the pictures, and adding the works and the artists that were omitted—such a catalogue would be invaluable. On the other hand, such a revision could be undertaken with more confidence twenty years from now, on the basis of monographs on the single artists. Within the short memory of the reviewer at least ten unlisted pictures by Frans Hals have been published. Evidently, the situation as regards the painting of the Low Countries is still fluid, and no list made now could pretend to definitive character.

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